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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. XXIX, No. 5. MAY 1934

Rationalisation and the Employment and Wages of Women in Germany

by

Dr. Judith GRÜNFELD

Some three years ago the International Labour Office published a volume entitled The Social Aspects of Rationalisation [1], *containing a series of preliminary studies of some of the varied and complex problems suggested by the title. In the chapter dealing with the effects of rationalisation on employment attention was called to the difficulty of making a precise study of that matter, and it was suggested that the most useful procedure would be to make a series of special investigations in particular factories or industries, dealing,* inter alia, *with the extent to which the proportions of men and women are affected by rationalisation measures. Dr. Grünfeld's article is a contribution to this field of enquiry ; it provides a variety of data from various sources showing the movement of women's employment in Germany in recent years, with special reference to the effects of rationalisation, and in particular an analysis of the results of an enquiry into this subject carried out in 1931 by the German Federation of Metal Workers, and a study of the relation between the employment of women and the difference between the wage rates paid to men and women.*

It may be added that in response to numerous requests for information on this and similar subjects, the Office is at present engaged on the study of the broader question (of which the present subject is one aspect) of the substitution of female for male labour and vice versa, *and its effects on wages ; it hopes shortly to publish the information which has been collected with the help of members of the Correspondence Committee on Women's Work.*

[1] *Studies and Reports*, Series B (Economic Conditions), No. 18. Geneva, 1931. 381 pp.

I.

ANYONE wishing to study the changes and trends in the employment of women during the periods of rationalisation and of the depression will find some very illuminating material in the records of the German labour market and in certain trade union enquiries into the effects of rationalisation on the relative proportions of male and female workers. Another valuable source is the official enquiries into wages that have recently been carried out in certain German industries, and the data they provide concerning the difference between men's and women's wages in certain occupations. In this article the official statistics of the movement of employment by sex and the enquiries mentioned above have been made the basis of an attempt to throw light on the much-debated question of the combined effect of modern technical progress and the traditional difference between men's and women's wages on the demand for female labour. From this point of view the changes in the relative employment of men and women in Germany during the years of rationalisation and of depression are of special interest, because technical progress was extremely rapid and large-scale unemployment rose to a very high level in Germany during the depression as compared with the other industrial countries of Europe.

It may be noted at the outset that when the wave of intensive rationalisation began in Germany in 1925, the number of women workers required by the German economy was very large. The census of that year showed that the male population of working age, i.e. between 15 and 65 years, numbered 20.4 million, while the total occupied population was 32 million (including 1.2 million unemployed, of both sexes). Even allowing for invisible unemployment, which was estimated at 450,000 at that date, the results of this census show that in 1925 there were more than 30 million occupied persons in Germany, while there were only 20.4 million males of working age available.[1] These figures clearly show that, quite apart from any other reasons for the employment of women, economic necessity, in the shape of a purely arithmetical need for female labour, is sufficient, even in a period of moderate

[1] *Deutsche Wirtschaftskunde*, bearbeitet im Statistischen Reichsamt, p. 15, Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1930.

economic activity, to produce a very considerable demand for women workers. This circumstance, which varies in different countries according to the state of the population and the economic conditions, is very often disregarded in periods of depression because of a subjective hostility to the employment of women. It may perhaps be objected to the numbers quoted above as examples that the discrepancy between the available male population of working age and the economic requirements of Germany in 1925 was merely a post-war phenomenon, resulting from the death of so many men of working age during the war. But the pre-war census of 1907 shows the same state of affairs. For the same area as that covered by the 1925 census, the number of occupied persons in 1907 was 25.1 million, while the number of males of working age (14 to 70 years) was 17.2 million.[1] It follows that during the boom period before the war the total male population of working age could cover only 68 per cent. of the demand for labour in Germany. It is characteristic of the demand for women workers at that period that on the average during the years 1907 to 1913 there were only 95 applicants for every 100 posts available for women in Germany, so that there was a definite shortage of women workers, while there were 179 applicants for every 100 posts for men.[2] These examples prove conclusively that the causes of the fluctuations in the degree of employment of women workers are primarily to be found, not on the side of supply, but on the side of actual demand at any given moment. It follows that all the attempts fostered by the depression to check the supply of female labour by restricting women's right to employment not only are unjust, but also miss the whole point of the problem in so far as the technical and economic reasons for the demand for women workers continue to be operative.

II.

If we wish to study the tendencies indicated by women's position on the labour market during recent years, the index of employment published down to 1931 by the Federal Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance

[1] STATISTISCHES REICHSAMT: *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1929, No. 3, p. 121.
[2] *Deutsche Wirtschaftskunde*, p. 287.

provides information on the movement of employment from 1925 onwards. This index was calculated for each sex separately on the basis of the membership of the sickness insurance funds on the last day of each month, the number of persons in employment on 1 January 1925 being put equal to 100. The degree of employment in June, which is generally the peak month, fluctuated as follows in the different years :

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF EMPLOYMENT [1]

(Base : number employed on 1 January 1925 = 100)

Date	Males	Females
June 1926	97.9	98.4
„ 1927	110.2	107.7
„ 1928	113.2	110.6
„ 1929	113.0	111.8
„ 1930	102.6	109.3
„ 1931	93.5	103.1

[1] Compiled from the data published in *Der Arbeitsmarkt im Deutschen Reich* (statistical supplement to the *Reichsarbeitsblatt*).

While employment for both sexes rises and falls with the curve of economic activity, there is one marked difference between the two sets of figures : during boom periods the index of employment for males rises higher than that for females, but in periods of depression it falls lower. Consequently, during the 1926 slump and again during the depression of 1930 and 1931, we find the index of employment for females higher than that for males. In June 1931 the index for men was nearly 20 points below its peak value, while that for women was only 8.7 points below. In June 1931, therefore, the degree of employment for men was 93.5 per cent. of the figure for 1 January 1925, while for women it was still 3.1 per cent. higher than on 1 January 1925. It is true that at a later stage in the depression the women's index also fell below the 1925 figure, but not so far as the men's.

Absolute figures for the employment of the two sexes, as given in the official statistics of membership of sickness funds, are as follows :

TABLE II. NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED [1]

(In millions)

Date	Total	Males	Females	Females per cent. of total
June 1928	18.0	12.0	6.0	33.3
„ 1929	18.6	12.4	6.2	33.3
„ 1930	17.0	11.1	5.9	35.0
„ 1931	15.2	9.8	5.4	35.5
„ 1932	12.7	8.1	4.6	36.2

[1] Compiled from data in the *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich* for different years.

While the number of males employed declined by 32.5 per cent. from June 1928 to June 1932, the number of females decreased during the same period by 23.4 per cent. Thus, in spite of the large number of women unemployed, the proportion of women to the total number of persons employed rose. In June 1928 there were 50 females employed to every 100 males, but in June 1932 the proportion had risen to 56.7 per cent. The extent of the slump on the German labour market can be realised from the fact that in June 1928 there were 12 million males alone among the employed, while in June 1932 the total number employed, including women, was only 12.7 million.

It would be incorrect to conclude from the above figures for the increasing proportion of women among the employed that the position of women on the labour market in general is more favourable in years of depression than that of men, for the degree of employment of women may be influenced by a number of factors which are far from being operative at the same time or to the same degree in every occupation open to women. It is only in so far as industries producing capital goods and the building industry, which employ mainly men, are more seriously affected by the depression than industries producing consumption goods, which employ large numbers of women, that women in general can be relatively less affected by unemployment. But account must also be taken of the greater or less rapidity of mechanisation in different industries producing consumption goods, resulting as it does in throwing a certain number of women out of employment as well as men, the change in the

ratio of women workers to women employees as rationalisation proceeds, and on the other hand the entry of women into certain occupations previously reserved for men as a result of the division of labour, and the effects of the difference between men's and women's wages on the demand for female labour. These factors often conflict with one another, and it is impossible to show their effects statistically. But certain conclusions as to the dominant trends in individual branches of industry can be drawn from the annual statistics of the German industrial inspectors and from the current official statistics of the demand for labour, classified by sex and by branch of industry. A valuable supplement to these statistics is provided by the enquiries carried out in the undertakings in certain branches of industry by the trade unions.

The changes in the relative proportions of male and female staff in recent years may be studied from the figures collected by the industrial inspectors ; these have at present been published only up to 1930 inclusive. Table III shows how the proportions of women workers and employees have changed in the five years from 1926 to 1930.[1]

This table shows in the first place that there has been an increase in the proportion of women employed on the average for all the 24 groups considered, both among manual workers and among salaried employees. It is noteworthy that women employees have gained even more ground than women workers : the proportion of women to the total number of workers in the undertakings covered by the returns of the industrial inspectors rose from 23.8 to 25.3 per cent., i.e. by 6.3 per cent., from 1926 to 1930, whereas the proportion of women employees rose during the same period from 33.4 to 37.1 per cent., an increase of 11 per cent. On the average, almost two-fifths of the total number of employees are women, while among the workers women represent only a quarter. The table shows clearly that female employees have greater security of employment in times of depression than either male employees or women workers. In practically all the industrial groups mentioned there has been

[1] The percentage of women has been calculated from the statistics of staffs of undertakings published in the annual reports of the industrial inspectors, in which they are given classified by industrial group and size of undertakings. The table reproduces the data for workers and employees in 11 of the most important industrial groups, together with totals for all the 24 groups for the whole of Germany and for all undertakings with 5 or more workers covered by the returns.

TABLE III. FEMALES PER CENT. OF ALL WORKERS AND OF ALL EMPLOYEES IN MEDIUM AND LARGE UNDERTAKINGS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIAL GROUPS, 1926-1930

Year	Iron, steel, metal goods		Electrical engineering and precision instruments		Paper and printing		Food and drink	
	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees
1926	20.0	25.0	26.5	26.1	33.6	32.4	40.8	34.1
1927	20.0	26.6	28.4	27.0	34.9	33.2	41.9	35.1
1928	21.1	27.5	29.5	27.3	35.0	32.2	42.1	36.0
1929	21.2	28.5	30.8	27.6	34.4	34.5	41.3	37.9
1930	21.2	28.5	29.0	27.3	33.0	33.8	40.1	37.8

Year	Textiles		Clothing		Chemicals		Wood and wood-working	
	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees
1926	58.6	29.0	67.3	57.6	22.5	21.9	10.8	25.1
1927	59.3	22.8	65.5	57.0	22.3	22.6	10.7	25.9
1928	59.0	23.4	68.4	57.1	22.6	23.0	10.6	26.7
1929	59.0	23.5	69.7	57.6	22.9	24.3	10.8	27.7
1930	57.6	24.0	70.0	57.8	23.7	27.1	11.3	27.7

Year	Hotels, restaurants, etc.		Commerce		Health and hygiene		All industrial groups	
	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees	Workers	Employees
1926	51.5	44.1	19.9	44.4	49.0	66.1	23.8	33.4
1927	52.0	44.2	19.5	45.8	49.9	69.3	23.9	34.6
1928	53.5	44.5	20.3	47.4	50.8	69.3	24.1	35.5
1929	54.0	44.9	20.6	48.5	50.4	67.5	24.1	36.5
1930	57.4	45.5	22.0	48.9	50.8	70.0	25.3	37.1

an increase in the proportion of women employees. The economic situation of the industry concerned is much more important for women workers than for women employees. In industries where

women workers have long been employed in large numbers, such as the textile, paper, and food and drink industries, table III actually shows a decline, even if only a slight one. It is only in branches where there has been rapid technical progress, with a consequent substitution of women for men, such as the clothing, boot and shoe, and iron and metal industries, electrical engineering, and the chemical industry, that the proportion of women workers has increased to a greater or less extent. The invasion by women of occupations formerly reserved for men will be described later on, with special reference to an exhaustive survey carried out by the German Federation of Metal Workers. Here some further details will be given as to the ground gained by women employees.

As early as 1925 the census of occupations showed that women employees had become a very extensive body as compared with the pre-war period. The number of women employees in industry, commerce, and transport rose from 112,000 in 1907 to 872,000 in 1925, or almost eight times as many, while the total number of employees in these branches increased from 1,037,000 to 2,599,100, or two-and-a-half times as many. As a result of this enormous increase in the number of women employees, their proportion of all employees in industry, commerce, and transport rose from 10.8 per cent. in 1907 to 33.5 per cent. in 1925. And table III shows that from 1926 to 1930 the proportion of women employees in the undertakings covered by the returns of the industrial inspectors continued to rise, until in the latter year it reached 37.1 per cent.

This change is part of the general increase in the ratio of employees to workers brought about in the course of the rationalisation of undertakings and the formation of trusts and introduction of more bureaucratic methods in industry. This tendency, and the more rapid increase where women only are concerned, are shown by the following figures [1]:

Year	Employees per 100 workers	
	Both sexes	Women
1907	11	6
1925	24.2	35.8
1930	27.1	39.7

[1] The figures for 1907 and 1925 are based on the results of the census of occupations for industry, commerce, and transport. Those for 1930 are based on the returns of the industrial inspectors; they are therefore not strictly comparable with the others, but are indicative of the trend.

It will be seen that while the proportion of women among all employed persons is increasing, as was shown in table II, a change is also taking place in the nature of their employment, which finds expression in a marked increase in the number of women employees as compared with women workers. It is not merely that the proportion of women has risen more among employees than among workers, but the absolute increase in the number of women from 1926 to 1930 was greater than the increase in the number of men, as is shown by the following figures for the undertakings covered by the returns of the industrial inspectors :

	Number of employees	
Year	Men	Women
1926	1,128,000	565,000
1930	1,235,000	731,000
Increase	107,000	166,000

It is because of this noteworthy change in favour of women employees that the strongest opposition to the employment of women—there is nowhere any objection made to their working in family undertakings or in home industries—now comes from among male salaried employees. Just as at the beginning of the machine age the influx of female workers into the factories aroused the hostility of the male workers, so the present mechanisation of clerical work, its subdivision, and the accompanying steady advance of the woman employee is causing equal hostility among male employees. The spread of the typewriter created employment for huge numbers of women as shorthand-typists, and now as a result of mechanisation women are replacing male book-keepers and clerks in large-scale undertakings where book-keeping machines and other modern calculating machines are used. But among women employees to-day, as among women workers in the old days, the decisive factor is not the supply, but the demand for female labour, which depends on technical developments and economic conditions. The consequent shift in the demand for women in the direction of employees is shown by the following comparison of the official data concerning the supply of and demand for commercial employees.

TABLE IV. SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR COMMERCIAL EMPLOYEES[1]

(In thousands)

Month	Men		Women	
	Applications	Vacancies	Applications	Vacancies
June 1929	128.2	10.4	75.7	13.7
„ 1930	113.2	2.9	79.5	5.7
„ 1931	175.6	3.1	124.6	4.8
„ 1932	244.7	2.2	169.7	4.1
„ 1933	261.3	3.5	167.3	5.3

[1] Compiled from the data published in *Der Arbeitsmarkt im Deutschen Reich* (statistical supplement to the *Reichsarbeitsblatt*). For 1933 the figures cover commercial and office employees.

Even with the increase in unemployment among women employees, the table shows that in the years in question there was a greater demand in absolute numbers for women employees, while there was a considerably greater supply of male employees. The labour market for office employees of the two sexes shows the same tendency during the years in question.

This shifting of the demand towards women employees is to some extent a general phenomenon, for it is to be found to a greater or less degree in every branch of economic activity. The demand for women workers, on the other hand, has increased at the expense of men chiefly in those branches of industry which have undergone rapid technical advances in the course of which men can be replaced by women. In branches of industry where women workers have long been employed in large numbers, technical progress often means the dismissal of large numbers of women as well as of men. The shifting of the demand for workers in the direction of women can be clearly seen in the chemical and metal industries, as is shown by the following comparative statistics of the labour market, showing the movement of demand in the chemical industry[1]:

[1] For source see note to table IV. The percentages in this table and in the similar table below for the metal industry are calculated from the official absolute figures.

Month	Vacancies per 100 applicants of same sex	
	For males	For females
June 1929	18.8	22.6
„ 1930	3.3	7.2
„ 1931	1.9	5.1
„ 1932	0.7	1.2
„ 1933	0.9	7.6

The demand for women workers in the chemical industry was not only relatively greater than the demand for men, but was also higher in absolute figures, as is shown by the following comparative table of applications and vacancies for workers of both sexes.

TABLE V. SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR WORKERS IN THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

Month	Males		Females	
	Applications	Vacancies	Applications	Vacancies
June 1929	3,610	682	3,963	898
„ 1930	11,109	368	6,825	493
„ 1931	15,282	301	7,043	365
„ 1932	22,272	173	8,694	168
„ 1933	18,778	183	6,949	531

During the last four years we thus find the same situation as in the case of women employees: while the supply of men was much larger, the demand for women workers was higher in absolute figures than the demand for men, or was at least equal to it (as in June 1932).

In the metal industry, which until quite recently was regarded as essentially an industry for men, the shift in the relative demand for metal workers in the direction of women, as shown in the following table, is all the more striking:

Month	Vacancies per 100 applicants of same sex	
	For males	For females
June 1929	13.0	20.0
„ 1930	2.9	7.6
„ 1931	1.6	4.4
„ 1932	0.5	1.7
„ 1933	0.8	4.2

In examining these figures it must be remembered that the statistics of the employment exchanges are affected by any

change in the conditions for the of unemployment benefit, and that there has been a reduction in the number of women entitled to benefit in recent years. This reduction dates from June 1931, when an Emergency Decree introduced a need test for married unemployed women. The above figures make it clear, however, that the demand for women metal workers was relatively more favourable even as far back as 1929 and 1930.

The passage of women from traditionally female occupations to typically male occupations is especially noticeable in the metal industry. In foundries, for instance, women are now employed not only in making cores but also in moulding and cleaning castings. Large numbers of women metal workers are employed instead of skilled male mechanics. Male tinsmiths are often replaced by women solderers, as will be seen later from the reports on different undertakings. It is true that mechanisation involves the dismissal of many women workers as well as men, but within the different branches and occupations in the metal industry the distribution of work between the sexes is constantly shifting—occupations, departments, and even whole undertakings becoming the province of women. This means that women workers have been more or less deliberately selected as being equally suitable or even more suitable than men for certain processes or as reaching the same or even a higher output. For in rationalised undertakings cheaper labour can be engaged so as to save wages only if there seems to be sufficient guarantee that the output and efficiency required in the modern undertaking will be maintained. In the light of this fact the growing proportion of women workers in the metal industry and the resulting ejection of men is all the more worthy of attention because this industry, in Germany as elsewhere, holds a high place for both present and possible future development.

The census of occupations of 1925 showed an already striking increase in the employment of women in the metal industry: the number of women workers in 1925 was two and a half times the 1907 figures (an increase of 151 per cent.). In no other industry had the relative increase been nearly so great. Consequently the metal industry came to rank third as regards the number of women workers employed, which was 291,925 at the date of the census of occupations, the only ones surpassing it being the textile and clothing industries, which employ mostly women and have done so from time immemorial.

Apart from the extraction of iron and other metals from the ores, for which women are very rarely employed, the census of undertakings in 1925 showed the following increase as compared with 1907 in the proportion of women employed in the metal-working industry, which employs over three-quarters of the total number of metal workers in Germany:

Branch	Women per cent. of all metal workers	
	1907	1925
Manufacture of iron, steel, and metal goods	9.5	18.4
Manufacture of machinery and vehicles, electrical engineering, precision and optical instrument making	4.6	12.1

In electrical engineering and precision and optical instrument making alone the proportion of women workers in 1925 was 26.3 per cent. on the average, but the following figures show that the proportion rises with the size of the undertaking. Out of every 100 metal workers in these industries the number of men and women in 1925 was as follows [1]:

Size of undertakings	Men	Women
201- 500 persons	66.3	33.7
501-1,000 ,,	65.4	34.6
Over 1,000 ,,	51.4	48.6

More than half these women metal workers (53.2 per cent.) were employed in giant undertakings employing more than 1,000 persons—a fact that clearly shows the connection between the increase in the employment of women and the concentration of industry.

The relative increase in the employment of women, to the detriment of male metal workers, during the period of economic prosperity after the 1926 depression and up to 1929 inclusive is shown in the following table, which gives the number of female workers over 16 years of age per 100 male workers over 16 in large undertakings employing 50 persons or more [2]:

Branch	Females per 100 males			
	1926	1927	1928	1929
Electrical engineering	47.3	50.4	53.0	57.3
Precision and optical instrument making	36.1	39.3	41.9	44.7
Manufacture of iron and steel goods	27.6	29.1	29.8	29.8
Manufacture of other metal goods	56.3	57.3	57.7	61.4

[1] Compiled from the results of the census of undertakings showing the number of workers by sex and by size of undertaking, in *Statistik des Deutschen Reiches*, Vol. 413 II.

[2] These percentages are calculated from the returns given in the annual reports of the industrial inspectors showing the number of workers by sex.

This increase in the proportion of women took place during a period of rising economic activity when the employment of metal workers of both sexes was increasing. For instance, in the large undertakings engaged in electrical engineering and the manufacture of precision and optical instruments covered by the returns of the industrial inspectors, the number of male workers was 24.6 per cent. higher in 1929 than in 1926, but the number of female workers increased by 51.4 per cent. in the same period. Conversely, during the years of depression, male workers were dismissed more rapidly than female; this is indicated by the further increase in the ratio of women to the total number of persons employed, as shown in table II above.

III.

The change described in the preceding pages is confirmed for the metal industry by a very important enquiry into the effects of rationalisation carried out by the German Federation of Metal Workers in 1932. The enquiry covered 1,687 undertakings, each employing over 100 workers, and together representing all branches of the metal industry. The aim was not only to collect figures showing the change in the ratio of the sexes at the end of 1931 as compared with 1927—a period of comparative prosperity—but also to obtain concrete facts regarding technical changes, the increase in productivity, the introduction of intensive methods of work, the reduction in the amount of human labour required, and the development of the employment of women. In view of the rareness and difficulty of such enquiries, the results of the present one are worthy of special attention.[1] The following analysis is concerned chiefly with selected data showing the effects of rationalisation on the employment of women.

In 1927, the 1,627 undertakings covered employed 1,251,393 metal workers, while in 1931 the number had fallen to 846,003. The reduction in the number of male workers was 33.2 per cent. and in the number of female workers 26.9 per cent. Women were employed in 72 per cent. of the undertakings. As a result of the greater decline in the number of men employed, the pro-

[1] The results of the enquiry were published in February 1933 in a report entitled *Die Rationalisierung in der Metallindustrie* (Berlin, Verlagsgesellschaft des DMV, 1933; 208 pp.), of which only a few copies were printed. (Subsequent references to this report give merely the page number.)

portion of women in every branch of the metal industry had increased to a greater or less extent, as is shown by the following table giving the number of women per 100 metal workers [1] :

Branch	1927	1931
Manufacture of iron goods	26.8	27.9
Manufacture of metal goods	36.5	38.2
Electrical engineering	35.8	37.3
Precision and optical instruments, watchmaking	29.1	30.7
Manufacture of office machines	17.9	20.2

The increasing proportion of women in these branches of the metal industry shows that the nature of the work is such as to foster a demand for women workers. (The reason the proportion of women employed is higher in the manufacture of metal goods than in electrical engineering is that the former branch includes the manufacture of jewellery, in which large numbers of women are employed.) It may be mentioned that of the 116,423 women metal workers covered by the enquiry more than 40,000 were employed in large undertakings with from 1,000 to 5,000 workers, and more than 21,000 in undertakings with from 500 to 1,000 workers. This is further confirmation of the correlation between the increasing size of undertakings and the development of the employment of women.

Of the 1,687 undertakings covered by the enquiry, 1,037, or 61.5 per cent., had partially or wholly adopted modern working methods. The percentage in electrical engineering was 66.5 and in the manufacture of office machines as much as 77.4 ; it will be seen from the figures given above that these are the branches of the industry in which there was the greatest increase in the proportion of women workers. The concrete examples given in the enquiry clearly reflect the dual effect of rationalisation from the point of view of the woman worker : on the one hand, dismissal as a result of the increase in output per head ; on the other, the employment of women on processes which had been definitely men's work before the technical transformation. A few examples from the wealth of information contained in the report may be given here.

The increased employment of women in iron foundries which have been mechanised is particularly striking. One foundry for the casting of motor chassis reports :

In core making all the cores for motor-car castings are prepared on a conveyor, and the same system is used in some instances in

[1] P. 12.

machine moulding. The work is now performed almost entirely by women and youths. Cores for motor cylinders were formerly made by skilled workers in from one to three hours, but now they are produced by women and boys in half an hour, or even in 6 minutes, with a spraying machine. [1]

Another foundry reports :

Core makers for small castings have mostly been replaced by women, who are also employed on small machine-moulding boxes where male moulders formerly worked.

A report from a moulding shop states that " girls of 18 have taken the place of older male workers ". [2]

Reports from undertakings for the manufacture of steel goods show clearly the vast extent to which mechanisation, the adoption of intensive methods, and the use of automatic machinery have led to the dismissal of both male and female workers. The following are examples of this process :

Tool making. Formerly a tool maker required anything up to three hours to drill a hole, but now the same hole can be drilled with the greatest accuracy in from 5 to 17 minutes ; 15 toolsmiths now do the same work as 48 men used to do.

The introduction of American automatic machine tools has increased output by almost 150 per cent. ; the Pittler automatic machine can be operated by one man, whereas three workers were formerly needed to do the same work.

In the manufacture of small arms, automatic self-feeders, automatic shot presses, and automatic cutting machines have been introduced. Only girls are employed on the self-feeders. Formerly one mechanic and one girl operated two machines, but since the change the same persons can operate six machines. The daily output per machine has increased from 42,000 to 70,000 in an 8-hour day.

Using a special conical milling machine, one man with 2 machines used to turn out 600 articles a day ; now one woman with 8 automatic machines can turn out 6,000 a day.

" Torpedo " free-wheels. For a daily output of 6,000 pieces 110 men were formerly required, but the same amount is now produced by 20 men. [3]

The following examples show the extent to which women workers have been rendered superfluous by mechanisation and increase of output per head :

Small arms. Rolling machines have been introduced, each of which replaces 5 female workers.

Chain making. In 1927, one woman worker could make 6,000 bars and links for pitch chains per day ; now one woman and a machine can produce 23,000.

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[1] P. 65. [2] P. 66. [3] Pp. 68 et seq.

Bicycle chains. In a department for assembling links, 96 women workers were employed; 5 machines were purchased which could also be operated by women, but 91 women were dismissed in consequence.

Sheet metal and enamelled goods. A hundred women workers were dismissed simply as a result of the introduction of soldering machines and conveyors; a soldering machine can be worked by one woman, and does as much work as was formerly done by 5 or 6 women.

Machines for soldering the seams of tins produce 10,000 tins a day; before the introduction of these machines one woman could complete 1,000 tins a day.[1]

Electric meters. Since the introduction of an automatic system for feeding strips to the punching machine, one woman can operate two machines; small automatic lathes can in some cases replace up to 6 women workers.[2]

Cable manufacture. The newer spinning machines produce almost three times as much as the older ones. . . . Only very strong women can operate these machines. One woman can now operate two band-making machines, which means the dismissal of half those formerly employed.

Cord manufacture. Up to 1927, one woman operated one high-speed weaving machine for insulated cords; now one woman operates two machines and earns 2.15 marks per 100 cords instead of 3 marks.

Winding. The amount that could be wound by hand by 10 or 12 women in 1927 can now be produced by 2 women with two winding machines.[3]

Similar examples of how female labour has become redundant can be found in the reports of undertakings in a great variety of different branches of the metal industry. Another point which constantly recurs in these reports is the substitution of female for male labour. Here again, a few examples of concrete cases quoted in the report of the German Federation of Metal Workers may be reproduced:

Builders' fittings. In the department for the manufacture of pin hinges, all the old machines were scrapped and new filing, drilling, and welding plant was installed. The whole process of production is carried out on a conveyor, from the rolling machine to the welding apparatus, then on to the straightening machine, and through the spraying plant and the drying oven, from which the finished hinges pass on the conveyor to the packing room. Under the old system the drilling, riveting, and filing were done by male workers, but now all this is done by females.

Locksmiths' fittings. The department in which only skilled workers used to be employed now employs only unskilled workers, young persons and women. Two grinding machines, each operated by one man, do the work of at least 12 locksmiths.

Door and furniture lock department. Cheap furniture locks are assembled on a conveyor by women; one kind of lock which formerly cost from 5 to 11 pf. can now be produced for from 1.8 to 4.5 pf.

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[1] Pp. 69-74. [2] P. 142. [3] P. 147.

For cheap door locks (for China and Africa), women workers are now actually preferred. As a result output is higher and the work is done more cheaply, even if the goods are not so well finished.[1]

Wire goods. The numerous kinds of wire goods are made on automatic or semi-automatic machines. There are special machines for making staples, drawing pins, buckles, mattress springs, spring hooks, etc. In some cases the output is enormous. There are pin machines that can produce 500 pins a minute, or 30,000 an hour. The effects of technical improvements and the introduction of automatic machines have been especially marked during the depression. Not only has the number of workers been considerably reduced, but their average age is lower, and male workers are being replaced by female.

Needle industry. Mechanisation in the needle industry, as in the manufacture of wire goods, has led to a reduction in the number of persons employed and the substitution of women for men.[2]

Metal furniture. Lining refrigerators was regarded as a man's work until October 1930, and one tinsmith was responsible for the whole job. To-day the work has been divided up among a number of workers, and the linings for fitting into the wooden framework are soldered by women.

Manufacture of stoves. In this department women workers are in the majority. Drilling, and to some extent assembling, gas stoves is now done by women.

Enamelling. Women are now in the majority, since spraying has replaced painting by hand.

Metal toys. Until 1927, about 60 tinsmiths were employed in the pressing department, but this is now being cut down. The reason is that joints are now more often hooked than soldered. Anything that is still soldered is done by women at much lower prices than formerly.[3]

Manufacture of looms. New automatic pickling and lacquering machines have been introduced. This work, especially pickling, was formerly done by men, but since the introduction of the machines exactly the same work is done by women. Output has increased by about 40 per cent.

Manufacture of pumps. In the inspection department, women have taken the place of skilled workers and women are also engaged in drilling.

Office machines. A new method of setting milling machines was introduced, and ordinary lathes were replaced by modern turret lathes. As a result, there was a great increase in the number of women employed, and male workers became superfluous. Output increased by as much as 50 per cent. . . . "Erika" typewriters. The number of men employed has declined more than the number of women. The typebar grinding machine was formerly operated by semi-skilled workers, but now entirely by women. To adjust the type of 80 machines used to require 26 type adjusters; since type-soldering apparatus has been introduced only two type adjusters are required.

Sewing machines. In preparing the steel, a system of group piece rates has taken the place of individual piece rates, and girls have been employed for work which used to be done by men, and now costs half as much as before. Throughout the industry as a whole, which employed 2,870 persons at the beginning of 1928, the proportion of women has increased considerably. Work formerly done by men is

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[1] P. 70. [2] P. 73. [3] P. 77.

now done by women, even without any technical changes having been made. The number of persons employed is being steadily reduced. The arm of a sewing machine, which was formerly drilled by hand, the work taking about 30 minutes, is now made in 5 minutes by a special machine with multiple spindles. In the processes of boring, turning, and milling one girl can now operate two machines which formerly required two semi-skilled workers.

Cabinet-making. The increase in output can be seen from the following example: the wage cost for 100 "Singer" panels used to amount to 10 marks; it is now 1.30 marks, and the work is done by women with machinery instead of by men working by hand.[1]

Motor-car industry. In upholstery work, women are now employed nstead of saddlers for sewing, stuffing, and gluing.

Bicycle manufacture. In assembling hubs, about 50 per cent. of the male workers have become superfluous since the introduction of flow work, and some of them have been replaced by women. Automatic tapping machines are operated by two girls, who cut from 9,000 to 10,000 nuts a day. With the old machines, which were worked by hand, only 1,200 were produced, so that the cost has fallen from 49 pf. to about 10 or 12 pf. In the assembling and fitting departments, the cost of wages has fallen by about 40 per cent. as a result of division of labour, and younger semi-skilled workers and women have taken the place of skilled male workers.[2]

All these examples, which might be multiplied, serve to show the extent to which women machine minders are replacing male hand workers or machine minders in the different branches of the metal industry, especially when women give the same or a much higher output. The fundamental cause of the substitution of women for men in rationalised undertakings is their greater efficiency. When their output is higher, the cheapness of female labour makes it tempting to achieve a high level of production with the traditional low wages paid to women. The following report from an electrical engineering works is very characteristic:

> In the winding department the firm has taken vigorous measures to reduce the cost of production. By changing the methods of manufacture, it is possible for work to be done by women which had formerly to be done by men, with a reduction of the cost by 50 per cent. or more. The work is cheaper not merely because the women earn less per piece than the men, but also because in most cases the women take much less time per piece than the men did.[3]

In winding, therefore, women are more efficient than men, producing the same amount of work in a shorter time. But not only are they allowed fewer minutes per piece (a combination of time and piece rates being the normal system in the German

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[1] Pp. 95-106. [2] P. 115. [3] P. 147.

industry) than the corresponding male workers, but the wage per minute is also considerably lower in accordance with the traditional difference between men's and women's wages. Consequently the woman, in spite of her greater efficiency, works at a double disadvantage as compared with the man, simply because it has always been customary to pay much lower wages to women, even if their output is obviously higher. This is entirely contrary to the real intention of piece rates and increases the inducement to turn men's work into women's work by making technical changes, so as to obtain the greatest possible output with the very low wages paid to women. This explains the relatively greater demand for women and the increasing proportion of women in the employed population as shown by the statistics of the labour market. But this fact does not merely increase the danger of men being ousted by women ; it also gives rise to the further danger of women being engaged for heavy tasks only suitable for men at considerably lower rates of pay than men. This is confirmed by one undertaking which reports that men are gradually disappearing from the winding department, even from heavy work. [1]

The tendency to employ women on heavy work formerly done by men, with harmful results for their health, is also mentioned in the reports of the industrial inspectors with reference to the practices current in certain undertakings in the metal industry. [2]

In the incandescent lamp industry and the electrical engineering industry, where neatness and dexterity are particularly necessary, large numbers of women have been employed for many years past. As far back as 1925 a considerable number of electrical engineering works in Germany were using modern methods of manufacture and employing very large numbers of women. The census of undertakings of 1925 showed that 61.4 per cent. of the persons employed in making electric meters were women, although formerly this had been a task reserved for highly skilled mechanics ; in the manufacture of electrical equipment the proportion of women was 48.6 per cent., in the manufacture of insulating material 48.4 per cent., and in the wireless industry 41.5 per cent. [3]

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[1] P. 147.

[2] Cf. *Jahresberichte der Gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten für das Jahr 1930*, Vol. II, p. 71.

[3] *Statistik des Deutschen Reiches*, Vol. 413, II.

The spread of rationalisation and the rapid mechanisation of the industry since 1925 have enormously increased output in electrical engineering, and have led to the dismissal of workers and a further substitution of women for men. A few examples of this may be selected from the reports contained in the enquiry of the German Federation of Metal Workers :

Construction of electrical machinery. It is not excessive to say that output per worker has increased by 30 per cent. since 1927, or 35 per cent. on modern machinery. This involves a very great strain on the worker.

Electrical appliances. Rationalisation has led to considerable reductions in piece rates and in the numbers employed. Formerly, for instance, 78 minutes were required to make an electric iron, while one can now be made in 23 minutes.

Wireless apparatus. In 1930 60 sets were turned out per day; at present the output is 160 sets, without overtime.

Paper tube manufacture. New rolling and gumming machines were introduced, and women are now employed instead of men on paper tube making machines.

In braiding one woman used to operate 24 machines, but now she has from 36 to 40. Similarly, one woman used to operate 8 high-speed braiding machines, and now the number is from 13 to 16.[1]

Telephone apparatus is now made almost entirely by women, as is shown by the following reports :

With regard to rationalisation, this takes the form of extreme subdivision of the work, which can then be done by women, with a saving of 30 per cent. as compared with male labour. But in practice the saving is often greater, since the women are nervous during the test on which rates are based, and work at a speed that they can later not maintain, or at any rate not exceed. Attempts are also being made to employ women on difficult assembling work which used to be entirely carried out by men. Good results have been obtained in this direction, especially with women who have been employed in the industry for some years.

In the construction of switches and control apparatus and in the winding department women are now being employed. Women used already to wind small coils, but now they wind all sizes and even rotors and stators for motors.

Construction of switches. In the construction of telephone slot machines 4 women have taken the place of 10 skilled workmen, and the output has increased. Riveting was formerly done by hand, but is now done by machine with a 100 per cent. increase in output. Piece rates have been altered accordingly.

Assembling. The output of woman workers has been doubled since the introduction of a new type of press, and piece rates have been halved.[2]

These facts go straight to the heart of the problem of the substitution of women for men, because they prove incontro-

[1] Pp. 143-150. [2] Pp. 150-151.

vertibly that while the women machine minders who have replaced men have a higher output and greater efficiency, they are paid much lower wages merely because of the influence of tradition. And this saving in wages is an additional inducement to further mechanisation with a view to replacing more men by women, with the inevitable result of rendering more workers of both sexes superfluous.

The dual effect of rationalisation for women workers, namely, their dismissal as a result of increased output on the one hand, and their employment in the place of men on the other, is confirmed by very interesting reports from optical and precision instrument making firms. A selection is given below :

Camera manufacture. 100 women workers formerly produced 450 cameras a day ; they now produce 1,000.

Roll films. The daily output was 800 in 1929, 1,200 in 1930, and 1,600 in 1931.

Viewfinders. Before rationalisation 1,000 of these were fitted in 290 hours ; the time required is now 160 hours, and half the workers employed are women.

Fitting camera bodies. Before rationalisation 10 in 56 hours ; now 10 in 6 hours, and two-thirds of the workers are women.

Formerly 100 bellows could be fitted in 7 hours at 86 pf. an hour. The work is now done by women in 6 hours at 51 pf., or at even lower rates by girls. The same holds good of all the other work in the factory.

Manufacture of precision and dental instruments. Wage costs have been reduced by the dismissal of 70 skilled workers and the appointment of women in their place. Quality has been maintained and production increased by the adoption of modern methods of working.

Water meters. Extremely modern machinery, mostly automatic, has taken the place of turners and mechanics. As a result of the division of labour, every process can be performed by women, and skilled workers are employed only for inspection and testing, fitting, and other difficult tasks such as adjustments and repairs. Only women are employed on the normal processes of manufacture.[1]

The high output that can be obtained in modern undertakings by women machine minders and the nervous strain involved may be shown by two final quotations :

Circular grinding. Two machines for polishing axles and bolts are operated by one girl, who in 8 hours does the work of 5 grinders.[2]

Screw factory. One girl formerly operated 5 of the old automatic screw machines ; she now has 12. Piece rates have fallen. Gradually the girls have been given a larger number of machines, and they are now working at very high tension. Before rationalisation 130 workers produced about 2,800 gross per day ; some 65 workers now produce 4,100 gross.[3]

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[1] Pp. 158-160. [2] P. 182. [3] P. 176.

In the light of all these reports of what is actually happening in various undertakings, it is clear that the problem of women's wages—the traditionally lower rates paid to women—is extremely important at the present time. The facts recorded above show that the work of women machine minders is by no means easier than that of the corresponding male workers, as is frequently confirmed by industrial engineers when inspecting factories. Mechanisation and the use of automatic machines mean a certain economy of physical effort, but technical changes and new methods of organisation increase the pace of the work, both by increasing the number of machines operated by one worker and by increasing the speed of each machine, thus imposing severe nervous strain on the worker. And not only is the work of a woman machine minder no lighter than that of a male worker, but in addition women tend to make greater demands on their nervous energy than men in order to increase their output, as is acknowledged both by employers and by the men themselves. While it used to be alleged that the lower rates of pay for women were justified by their lower output, in rationalised undertakings the situation is being reversed, since women make special efforts to obtain reasonable earnings on their low piece rates by increasing their output. In this combination of modern high output and traditional low rates of pay lies the root of the danger of the increasing substitution of women for men. As long as this situation continues, every post in connection with machinery which can be filled by a woman, even at the cost of severe nervous strain early collapse, will undoubtedly go to her at the expense of the man. The numerous examples quoted above from metal undertakings clearly show this process of substitution, which is also going on to a greater or less extent in other industries, such as the boot and shoe, tobacco, and chemical industries. According to an enquiry carried out by the Federation of Shoemakers, the proportion of women workers in the German boot and shoe industry rose from 39.1 per cent. in 1913 to 49.7 per cent. in 1930.[1] The reports of the industrial inspectors show that the proportion of women employed in boot and shoe factories rose steadily from 47.8 per cent. in 1926 to 52 per cent. in 1930. According to the same source the proportion of women workers in the German tobacco industry increased from 78.3 per cent. to 80.4 per cent. during the same period. Accord-

[1] *Jahrbuch des Zentralverbandes der Schuhmacher*, 1913 and 1930.

ing to the census of undertakings of 1925 the proportion of women tobacco workers was then 73.8 per cent., as against 65.4 per cent. in 1907. In these industries, as in the metal industry, the substitution of women for men as a result of mechanisation is taking place at a comparatively rapid rate. In this connection the results of the official enquiries into wages in the German boot and shoe, chemical, and metal industries in 1931 and 1932 are particularly interesting, because of the information they provide on the gap between the wages of men and women machine minders. A brief outline of the most important of these results from this point of view is given in the next section of this article

IV.

The enquiry into wages in the boot and shoe industry, which was carried out in March 1932, covered 337 undertakings with 38,757 workers, of whom 49.5 per cent. were women.[1] The workers of both sexes with whom the enquiry deals were machine operators in factories. Piece rates were paid to 29.2 per cent. of the women and 26.4 per cent. of the men. The hourly earnings on piece work of women over 21 were only 67.3 per cent. of those of men over 21 ; the figure for men from 18 to 21 was 69.9 per cent. of that for men over 21, or 3.9 per cent. more than for adult women. Women machine operators over 21 are thus not merely paid a third less than male workers of the same age and category but are actually paid less than the younger men. The complete absence of any practical reason for this differentiation in wage rates, and its basis on nothing but tradition, are clearly shown by the wages for flow workers in shoe factories. According to the official enquiry the standard rate was 83 pf. per hour for male flow workers over 21, 62 pf. for women over 21, 66 pf. for men from 18 to 21, and only 46 pf. for women from 18 to 21. While there is no practical explanation even for the lower pay of adult women flow workers, who have proved particularly efficient in the boot and shoe industry, the difference of almost 50 per cent. between the wages of adult men and of women from 18 to 21 is certain to lead to a considerable displacement of men.

In fact, the result of the traditional graduation of wages according to sex and age is that the younger women, on whom

[1] "Hauptergebnisse der zweiten amtlichen Lohnerbung in der deutschen Schuhindustrie", in *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1932, No. 18, pp. 576 et seq.

there is a saving of almost 50 per cent. in wages, are steadily displacing the other groups of machine minders, and often skilled workers as well, as we have already seen in several of the examples quoted above from the metal industry. No one who visits a rationalised undertaking, whether in the leather, boot and shoe, tobacco, metal, or chemical industry, can fail to observe the large proportion of young women and girls among the workers. It is in this group that the greatest saving in wages is often accompanied by exceptional efficiency in machine work which has been divided up into many separate processes. Very illuminating statements on this subject were made by experts from industrial circles in their evidence before the German Official Committee for the Investigation of Conditions of Production in Industry. For example, Reinhart, the expert for the leather industry, stated that in Worms the proportion of women workers in that industry was already 50 per cent. He continued: "With our machines girls can produce quite as much as men. In many tasks the woman's touch is more delicate and more skilful than the man's. Men do not give the same output." [1]

The number of processes in which girls and women prove more efficient than men is being increased by the division of labour in many industries. Were it not for the traditional discrepancy in wages, the division of work between the sexes would be based on the principle of efficiency and would lead to specialisation on work for which each was especially fitted. As things are to-day, however, the wide margin between the wages for male and female machine operators must necessarily lead to the extensive substitution of women for men, as we have in fact seen from the figures quoted above.

The official enquiry into wages in the chemical industry, which was carried out in June 1931 [2], also showed a considerable difference between the wages of men and women machine minders. The average hourly earnings of male machine minders were 79.7 per cent. and those of women machine minders only 50.4 per cent. of the hourly earnings of a skilled hand worker. In the dye industry, no less than 52 per cent. of the women workers were on piece work and the basic time rate for women machine minders was only 59.6. pf., whereas for men it was

[1] *Die deutsche Lederindustrie*, p. 57. Enquête-Bericht. Berlin, 1930.

[2] "Hauptergebnisse der zweiten amtlichen Lohnerhebung in der chemischen Industrie", in *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1932, No. 6, pp. 177 et seq.

89.8 pf.; i.e. the women's rate was 33 per cent. lower than the men's. The effect of this difference, which is entirely contrary to the basic principle of piece rates, is that men are replaced by women wherever the nature of the work permits, and also that piece work increases much faster for women than for men. In June 1931, in fact, the proportion of women on piece work in the chemical industry had increased by the remarkable figure of 37.2 per cent. as compared with June 1928, the date of the first official enquiry into wages in that industry. This rapid increase in piece work for women shows how industry, especially during periods of depression, welcomes the saving in wages of about 33 per cent. which can be achieved by employing women workers. On the other hand, the increasing strain of piece work for women under the high speed of modern working methods and the low rates of pay that compel the workers to overtax their strength make factory work even more harmful to the health of women than it was before.

Examples have already been given of the substitution of women for men in the metal industry and the nervous strain involved for the women in maintaining a high output in what used to be a men's industry. It so happens that the second official enquiry into wages in the metal industry [1] was carried out in October 1931, i.e. the same year as the enquiry of the German Federation of Metal Workers analysed above. It is especially interesting to compare the instances already cited of the efficiency of women in various branches of the metal industry with the following figures, reproduced from the official enquiry, representing basic time rates per hour in October 1931 for male workers over 21 and female workers over 18 years of age ;

Category	Pf.
Skilled men	96.6
Semi-skilled men	84.3
Unskilled men	80.9
Women	57.3

Thus the basic rate for women, i.e. for semi-skilled machine minders (who are the largest group in the metal industry), was barely 68 per cent. of the corresponding rate for semi-skilled men (i.e. the comparable group of male machine minders). This

[1] "Hauptergebnisse der zweiten amtlichen Lohnerhebung in der Metallindustrie", in *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1932, No. 24, pp. 785 et seq.

difference of 32 per cent., which is based entirely on tradition and not on any practical grounds, is the fundamental reason for the displacement of men of which so many examples have been quoted. It is significant that the rates for semi-skilled women machine minders are also appreciably lower than those for unskilled men ; the same situation has been found by the official enquiry into wages in all the industries investigated, including the textile industry. Thus even the most skilful and efficient woman winder in an electrical engineering works, whose work is far superior to that of men, is paid 30 per cent. less on piece rates than even an unskilled male worker.

It should be remembered that when workers are being selected for a rationalised electrical engineering works, both women and men are frequently submitted to vocational tests before being engaged. In these psychotechnical tests special stress is laid, in the case of women, on those qualities which are absent or insufficient in the case of men. Yet even the efficiency of these highly suitable women workers is paid for, in accordance with tradition, at a third less than that of similar male workers. This shows how essential it is that the rates of pay for work which is definitely more suitable for women should be thoroughly revised and made proportionate to efficiency. The demand for equal pay for equal work has no point since it is not usual for men and women to do exactly the same work in rationalised undertakings. All the processes in which women can do the work as well as men are being turned over to women and the men are being crowded out, so that automatically the usual rates of pay for women come into force, with the resulting economy of wages. It is this combination of modern high efficiency with the traditional wage differences based on sex that imposes a dangerous strain on the health of women workers and deprives men of all jobs for which women can possibly be employed. So long as the system of remuneration by sex is retained on the traditional lines, there will be a temptation to mechanise the work away from men and into the hands of women. In every industry there are indeed an increasing number of processes where the work has been so subdivided that the man is no longer an adequate substitute for the woman, and the specific demand for female labour is increasing. If this tendency to replace men by women among manual workers as well as among salaried employees is to be checked, the only

course is to find a modern solution, which must be an international one, for the problem of women's wages which will take account of the modern efficiency of women. This will involve scrapping the traditional system of dividing machine operators into wage groups depending on sex and age and adopting in its place a wage scale graduated according to efficiency in processes of equal difficulty. Otherwise the rapid spread of technical progress in the leading industrial countries will mean that more and more adult men and women will be dismissed and only the girls with the lowest rates of wages will be sure of their jobs.

The International Regulation of Hours of Work on Railways

In 1933, when the Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference held the first discussion of the question of the reduction of hours of work, it was decided that the attention of Governments should be drawn to the problem of applying international regulations on shorter working hours to transport undertakings. In the usual questionnaire sent to Governments in preparation for the second discussion, at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference, of the question of the reduction of hours of work, therefore, the Governments were requested to express their opinion as to the desirability of having special provisions within the framework of the regulations to meet the requirements of the transport industry, considering separately railways and other forms of transport.

The majority of the Governments were in favour of such special provisions, but very few of them explained what provisions seemed to them most suitable.

The purpose of the present article, which considers the matter solely from the technical standpoint and deals chiefly with questions of method, is to analyse the special requirements of railway undertakings in the matter of the regulation of working hours.

The article is intentionally restricted to railways, for it is there that working conditions are most varied and most complex. Any solutions which are thought suitable for them can easily be adapted to the special requirements of other branches of transport by rail (tramways, metropolitain railways, etc.) and to the various road and air transport undertakings.

Transport work may be divided into three main groups: transport by water, by land, and by air. Water transport was specifically excluded by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office from the scope of the proposed international regulations for the reduction of hours of work. The question is therefore restricted to land transport—including transport by rail (railways, tramways, metropolitan railways, etc.) and by road—and air transport.

Even if only railways are considered, as in the present article, it will be found that the regulation of hours of work raises a host of problems of internal organisation; these are due mainly to the number and variety of the categories of staff employed and the diversity of their duties. The first necessity, therefore, is a study of the varied categories of staff employed and the duties of each group. This is followed by a survey of the arrangements concerning hours which are in force under national legislation, and the article concludes with an attempt to determine some general standards to serve as a basis for international regulations on hours of work in railway undertakings which might be applied without seriously interfering with their operations or greatly upsetting existing practices as regards the organisation of the work.

Characteristics of the Work of Various Categories of Staff in relation to the Regulation of Hours

FOR the purposes of the present study it has been decided not to retain the usual classification of railway workers according to the principal departments (administration and management; traffic department; permanent way, works, and buildings; operation and maintenance of rolling stock). Instead, the following classification, based on the conditions of work of the different categories, has been adopted as better suited to the end in view:

A. *Travelling staff*, including:

(1) locomotive staff: engine-drivers and firemen;

(2) train staff: guards, car attendants, brakesmen, ticket inspectors, conductors, etc.

B. *Station and line staff*, including:

(1) traffic and maintenance staff, or station and depot staff, including staff responsible for passenger and goods traffic, marshalling, shunting, and despatch of trains, maintenance of rolling stock in depots and stations, cleaning, greasing, and inspection of locomotives, carriages, and trucks, lamplighting, electric power supply, etc.;

(2) line staff, including:

(*a*) permanent-way staff: inspectors, platelayers, gangers, etc.;

(*b*) watchmen: gatekeepers, level crossing keepers, pointsmen, bridge and tunnel minders, etc.;

(3) administrative, store, and workshop staff.

The characteristic features of the duties of these different categories of staff, in relation to the regulation of hours of work, are as follows.

Travelling Staff

The travelling staff consists of two groups : locomotive staff and train staff. Roughly speaking, the conditions of employment of these two groups differ only so far as they have to be adapted to different duties.

The factors governing the special nature of the work of these categories are as follows :

(1) The service is carried on continuously, or at least for a large part of every twenty-four hours. This necessitates an unbroken supply of workers both by day and by night, including Sundays, or for a long period every day ; the only method of providing this is by a series of shifts, each worker having a spell of rest after each spell on duty.

(2) There must be a reserve of rolling stock and staff ready to be called out immediately to meet any emergency.

(3) The place of employment (the locomotive or the train) is mobile, so that the employees are continually travelling ; they may have to be away from their homes for considerable periods and may often have to begin or end their spell on duty elsewhere than at their home station or depot.

(4) Many of the occupations require sustained effort and constant attention, but are sometimes interrupted by breaks during which the worker has merely to be present at his post.

The engine-driver and fireman, for example, will have to get the locomotive ready at the depot—or at least fetch it—take it to the train have it coupled, drive the train and stop at stations—sometimes for several hours ; when they reach the spot where their duty ends (which may be the starting point or some other point on the line), they will have to put the locomotive in the shed, damp down the furnace, sometimes clean the engine, and sometimes travel back to their homes. In other words, they have a principal job, which is to drive the train, a number of subsidiary ones (getting ready the locomotive and returning it to the shed), periods of mere waiting about, and often travelling to or from work. Sometimes they are not driving the train, but simply waiting on reserve duty at the depot ; in this case they may or may not have work to do, and may or may not be required to keep steam up. At other times they may have orders not to leave home in case they are suddenly called upon for duty.

(5) They are often obliged to remain on duty not up to a certain hour but until they reach a given place, as the trains do not always run to time.

Station and Line Staff

Station and Depot Staff.

The work of these categories depends on the size of the stations and the amount of traffic. It has the following characteristics :

(1) A continuous service must be assured : both day and night, including Sundays, or for long hours daily.

(2) There are a great variety of occupations, some of which sometimes involve periods of merely being in attendance.

(3) The service is often discontinuous, resulting in numerous periods of actual work separated by intervals which may be of considerable length.

(4) The worker may have to remain on duty until a given job is finished (e.g. when a train is late).

(5) The worker may sometimes have to be available for duty while he is at home.

Line Staff.

Permanent-Way Maintenance Staff. The conditions of work of this category are affected by the following factors :

(1) Their workplace may be, and very often is, a long way from where they live, or from other points at which they may have to work on the same day. Consequently, they often have to travel long distances going to or returning from work or going from one job to another.

(2) They may have to work on Sunday to keep the service from being interrupted.

(3) Their work out of doors is affected by the weather and the seasons ; on certain days work is impossible, and at certain times of the year, especially in high latitudes, the hours of daylight during which work is possible are very short.

Watchmen. The following factors must be taken into account :

(1) The number of trains that pass and the intervals between them.

(2) Whether the traffic on the line is continuous or not (especially whether it stops at night).

(3) The fact that the work is intermittent.

(4) The nature of the work, which usually involves little muscular effort but sometimes requires great attention.

Administrative, Store, and Workshop Staff.

There are no special features to note in connection with the work of this group, which is very little affected by the special requirements of the traffic. They are in much the same position as the employees or workers in any other administrative office or industrial undertaking, and may be similarly treated. It may however be noted that in the administrative departments, as in many public and private offices, the hours of work are often shorter than they are in other departments.

The preceding survey shows that, taking the duties of all the different categories of railway staff as a whole, there are two circumstances in particular which must be taken into account in regulating hours of work if all cases, even the most extreme, are to be covered.

The first is the continuity of the train service, at least over long hours daily. This is further complicated by the fact that the nature of the work and the conditions in which it is

performed sometimes preclude a system of shifts working exactly the same number of hours, and relieving each other always at the same hours and the same places. It is often uncertain what time a shift will be able to come off duty. Another complication is the necessity of arranging for the workers to have alternate periods of day and of night duty, and of making the weekly rest, or the periodical longer interval between spells, fall more or less regularly on Sunday. It should also be noted that some of the staff may be required to make very long journeys and to work for long stretches without a break.

The second circumstance is that in the course of their work, while they are at the disposal of the company, many railway workers have periods during which they do no work, or only such work as does not require either great muscular effort or sustained attention (travelling to work, running empty, being on reserve duty or on call at home), while at other times they are engaged in accessory, preparatory, or supplementary work. Often, too, the day consists of several spells of work broken by shorter or longer intervals ; this means a greater or less extension of the spreadover, reckoned from the beginning of the first spell of work to the end of the last, with a corresponding reduction of the daily period of unbroken rest.

Solutions Adopted in National Regulations

The following pages are not intended to give a complete and detailed comparative study of the various national regulations on hours of work on railways. Most of these regulations are extremely detailed, and such an analysis would overstep the bounds of this article. All that is proposed is to show by a few typical examples how the various problems inherent in the fixing of standard hours for the different types of duties described in the preceding section have been solved in different countries. [1]

[1] The following is a summary list of the sources from which the information in the following pages is taken :

Austria : Various Orders based on the Act of 18 December 1918 concerning the application of the 8-hour day and 48-hour week to the different railway services.

Belgium : Acts of 17 July 1905 and 14 June 1921 ; Royal Orders of 29 August 1926 and 9 February 1929 ; General Order No. 13 of 15 March 1929 of the National Belgian Railway Company (Staff Department).

Czechoslovakia : Orders of 18 April, 29 April, and 26 July 1919.

Denmark : General Regulations of 21 November 1921.

Estonia : Order of 29 January 1931, amended 19 February 1932 and 24 January 1933.

(Continued on next page.)

Continuity of the Service

The first point to be considered is the practical arrangements for ensuring the continuous working of the service, at least for long hours daily, which was referred to above. As a general rule, the national regulations applicable to the categories of staff affected make no attempt to prescribe a strict maximum working day or week ; they either fix an average working day or week, calculated over a period of several weeks or months or even over the whole year, or they simply specify the maximum number of hours that may be worked in some period longer than a week : three weeks, a month, six weeks, etc.

The following are a few examples of the first method—that of *average hours of work*. In Austria, the hours of work in continuous services are, on the average, 48 hours per week or 208 hours per month. In Belgium the average hours of work for locomotive and train staff, which are 8 per day and 48 per week, are calculated over periods of up to three months ; the hours of workers other than locomotive and train staff who work in two or three shifts are fixed at an average of 144 over a period of 21 consecutive days. The hours of persons not employed at a fixed workplace must not exceed an average of 8 per day and 48 per week over a period of 6 weeks ; the average of 8 hours per day is calculated over a period of three months for platelayers or other workers of the permanent-way and works department who are responsible for opening locked barriers at level crossings. In Estonia locomotive staff must work an average of 220 hours per month and

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FINLAND : Circular of the Department of Railways (Rh. 80/1909) ; Provisional Regulations of 1927 (Rh. H. 24/1927).

FRANCE : Orders of 8 November 1919 ; Decree of 16 January 1925.

GERMANY : Decree of 5 August 1922, amended by Decree of 16 January 1924.

GREAT BRITAIN : National Union of Railwaymen : Rates of Pay and Conditions of Service of Conciliation Grades (London, December 1927).

HUNGARY : Act No. XVII of 1914.

IRISH FREE STATE : Memorandum of Settlement, February 1922 (Male Employees in Conciliation Grades—Engine-drivers, Firemen and Cleaners).

ITALY : Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923, No. 1631.

LATVIA : Order of 13 September 1923.

NETHERLANDS : Order of 15 May 1933.

NORWAY : Circular of the State Railways, No. 229 of 3 May 1923.

POLAND : Order of 10 June 1920.

PORTUGAL : Decree of 10 May 1933.

SPAIN : Decree of 1 July 1931.

SWEDEN : Royal Notification of 4 June 1920, amended on 22 December 1921 and 28 August 1922.

SWITZERLAND : Federal Act of 6 March 1920 ; Order No. 1 of 12 August 1921.

shunting-engine staff and train staff 260 hours per month, in both cases calculated over the year ; for other categories of staff the average is 8 hours per day calculated over the year. In France, locomotive and train staff must work an average of 8 hours per day during the period between any two consecutive periods of complete rest ; these breaks occur at intervals of 6 days on the average, with a maximum of 9 days. In Great Britain the hours of work at the rate of 8 per day may be averaged over a fortnight. In Latvia average hours are fixed at 8 per day and 208 per month. In Norway the daily average of 8 hours may be calculated over a period of 4 (or exceptionally 6) weeks. In Spain the average hours of locomotive staff are 8 per day over a period not exceeding 30 days. In Switzerland average hours may not exceed 8 per day in any period of 14 consecutive days.

Other countries have adopted the system of fixing a *maximum number of hours* for some period longer than a week. In Czechoslovakia the hours of most categories of railway workers may not exceed 192 in 4 weeks. In Denmark the hours of service for different categories are 208, 234, or 260 for a month of 30 days, including 4 days of rest. In Finland the locomotive staff, to whom the Eight-Hour Day Act applies, may not work more than 192 hours in 4 weeks ; the hours of service of categories not covered by the Act vary from 240 to 310 hours per month of 30 days. In France, the hours of work of railway workers other than locomotive and train staff, which are fixed at an average of 8 per day on a basis of 298 (or 299) days per year, may be limited in each successive period not exceeding 10 days (or 45 days in exceptional cases, such as large seasonal increases of traffic) to a maximum of as many times 8 hours as there are actual days on duty in the period, making due allowance for regulation breaks and leave periods. For workers responsible for the maintenance of the permanent way and of electrical installations and signals, and labourers in permanent-way gangs, hours may be limited to a maximum of as many times 8 hours as there are days on duty in each successive period of not more than 90 days, making due allowance for regulation breaks and leave periods. In Germany the hours of work vary, according to the nature of the worker's duties, from 48 to 60 for each period of 7 days or from 208 to 260 for each period of 30 days ; in order to cope with a rush of heavy seasonal or other traffic, the average may be calculated over the year (2,504 to 3,130 hours, or 2,512 to 3,140 in leap years). In Hungary, the maximum number of

hours of work is 260 per month for locomotive staff and 300 for train staff. In the Netherlands the limits fixed for the periods of service of different categories of staff vary from 90 to 144 hours in any period of two consecutive weeks. In Sweden, as a general rule, hours may not exceed 208 in 30 days.

Thus, by one or other of the two methods mentioned, national regulations provide great elasticity for the distribution of the total number of hours of work which the worker is required to perform within a specified period, which is often as much as a month and sometimes longer. It is, of course, clear that the longer the period over which the average is calculated or to which the maximum applies, the greater is the elasticity in the distribution of hours.

From the social point of view, however, this system is not satisfactory unless the daily hours are limited. This is in fact done in the Belgian, British, and Swiss regulations, which prescribe a maximum working day of 10 hours. In France, the daily hours may not exceed 9 (or exceptionally 10, but not more than twice between any two successive periods of complete rest or six times in a month) for locomotive and train staff and 10 hours for other workers. In Sweden, as a general rule, daily hours may not exceed 11 for station and line staff and 13 for travelling staff.

In some cases the actual work is performed in a number of spells separated by intervals ; the regulations then fix limits for the time between the beginning of the first spell of work and the end of the last (the spreadover). This point will be considered farther on.

Many regulations fix special limits for travelling staff, and in particular for locomotive staff. In Belgium the total absences of locomotive and train staff from their place of residence or normal workplace may not exceed 340 hours per month ; in Hungary the corresponding figure for locomotive staff is 360 hours per month. In Germany travelling time on a locomotive may not as a rule exceed 9 hours in the course of one shift.

A certain latitude in the distribution of hours is also the solution of the problem of making up time lost by outdoor workers on account of bad weather or on account of the short working day in winter. In Denmark, for instance, the daily hours of work of the permanent-way maintenance staff are reduced by an hour in December and January and extended by an hour from 15 March to 15 May. In France, for workers

responsible for the maintenance of the permanent way, electrical installations, etc., the normal 8-hour day may be extended to not more than 9 hours for a period of three months, equivalent time off duty being given during three other months of the year. In Sweden the hours of permanent-way workers may not exceed 195 in any period of 30 days from October to March and 221 from April to September. In Switzerland, to meet a heavy rush of seasonal traffic, daily hours may be extended by one hour for not more than five months a year, on condition that equivalent time off duty is granted during the rest of the year.

It has already been mentioned that in France and Germany, for workers other than locomotive and train staff, the period for which a maximum number of hours is fixed may be increased in order to cope with heavy seasonal traffic.

Calculation of Hours of Work

The second point to be investigated is the methods adopted in different countries to establish a relation between the length of periods of actual work and that of periods during which the staff is under the orders of the undertaking but is not actually working. This is generally done by taking a certain period of attendance as being equivalent to a certain period of actual work, or, less frequently, by attributing a fixed time to certain jobs, irrespective of the time actually taken by the worker.

Hours of Work and Hours of Attendance or on Duty.

Typical examples of regulations which consider a period of attendance as being equivalent to a certain period of actual work are to be found in Latvia and Poland.

The Latvian regulations classify hours as follows : (1) actual work : the time during which a worker is continuously engaged in physical or mental activities ; (2) nominal work : the time during which a worker is present at the workplace under the orders of the railway undertaking but not performing actual work ; e.g. for station staff the intervals between train duties which occur during the working turn and during which they are not required to perform other duties ; for trainmen and locomotive grades the time when they are on reserve duty of various kinds ; watching of all kinds which is not coupled with other duties ; (3) working turn : the hours of work consisting of the

actual work plus the nominal work ; (4) net hours of work : the time arrived at by adding together the full amount (100 per cent.) of the actual work and the nominal work multiplied by coefficients varying from 0.33 for workers engaged in watching to 0.75 for locomotive grades and trainmen on reserve duty and engaged in supervising a locomotive or train, and also for breaks not exceeding one hour at outward termini. The net hours of work of locomotive grades and trainmen are calculated by multiplying their working turns (with the exception of breaks not exceeding 3 hours and time on reserve duty) by coefficients varying from 0.80 to 0.90 according to the grade of the worker and the nature of the train.

On this basis the net hours of actual work are fixed at 8 per day and 208 per month on an average (6 per day for administrative staff). The working turn may not exceed an average of 8 hours per day if the employment consists exclusively of actual work, 10 hours per day if the hours of work comprise at least one half-hour period of nominal work, 12 hours per day if the hours of work comprise not less than two periods of nominal work amounting to not less than half an hour each or one such period amounting to not less than one hour, and 15 hours per day if the hours of work comprise not less than three periods of nominal work amounting to not less than one hour each and the worker lives at the workplace. The absolute maximum is 16 hours per day for all staff except telegraphists and telephonists, whose working turns may not exceed 12 hours where the quantity of work is small.

The distinction made in the Polish regulations is between actual productive work and mere attendance. Productive work is given the coefficient 1 and is limited to 46 hours a week ; attendance is given the coefficient ⅓ and may amount to 138 hours a week. The following intermediate cases are recognised : (*a*) three-quarters productive work and one-quarter attendance : combined coefficient ⅚ ; total 56 hours a week ; (*b*) half productive work and half attendance : combined coefficient ⅔ ; total 70 hours a week ; (*c*) one-quarter productive work and three-quarters attendance : combined coefficient ½ ; total 91 hours a week. (In these three cases the number of hours is rounded off to the nearest multiple of 7.) Thus the hours of work of each category of staff include a coefficient assigned to their particular duties.

In other countries the methods are slightly different : a distinction may be made between hours of actual (or productive)

work and hours of attendance (sometimes called hours on duty), or the regulations may state clearly that one or other of these is taken as a basis for calculating hours, and a definition is then given of the terms employed. In Austria, for example, the time-tables for some categories of staff prescribe a specified length of time on duty—i.e. hours of actual attendance under orders—which is longer than the hours of work. In the services connected with the running and supervision of trains (the work of guards, shunters, signalmen, permanent-way inspectors) the various tasks have been analysed and classified according to their time value ; the times required for performing these tasks, thus empirically determined, are defined as " time units ". The amount of actual work to be done on a given job in the space of 24 hours is obtained by adding together the time units. For locomotive and train staff, the periods which regularly count as periods of mere attendance are definitely specified. In Belgium the regulations take as a basis " actual work ", which is defined for each category of staff ; for workers whose work is essentially intermittent it is the period on duty that is limited, and not the hours of work. In Denmark the regulations fix different limits for the period of service calculated per 30-day month including 4 rest days. The maximum hours are : 208 for duties involving actual work and attention during most of the time ; 234 hours for duties involving actual work and attention, but less exacting than the first group ; 260 hours for all other work. These maxima are assimilated to normal hours of work ; for each post the period of service is determined on the basis of the nature and amount of the work to be performed. In Estonia a distinction is made between hours of work and hours of attendance. Periods of unbroken activity are considered hours of work ; periods when work is not continuous are considered hours of attendance. As a general rule, hours of work may not exceed 8 per day on an average over the year and hours of attendance 12 per day on an average over the year (with a daily maximum of 16 hours). In Finland the regulations are based on the time on duty, which varies according to the intensity of the work. Per 30-day month, the time on duty may not exceed 240 hours (with a daily maximum of 12 hours) for work requiring very great attention combined with a certain amount of hard physical work with little opportunity for rest ; 260 hours (daily maximum 16 hours) for less fatiguing work but still requiring great attention ; 280 hours (daily maximum 12 or 18 hours according to

grade) for ordinary, not particularly arduous tasks ; 310 hours (daily maximum 14 or 18 hours according to grade) for duties consisting essentially in watching (supervision, being on reserve duty, etc.) or light work. In France it is the hours of actual work that are fixed, but for certain grades whose duties are such that their hours on duty cannot be deemed to be hours of actual work, a limit is fixed for hours of attendance, this limit being regarded as equivalent to the maximum hours of actual work of 8 per day. In the Netherlands the regulations take as a basis the period on duty, which is defined as the period between two successive intervals of uninterrupted rest (deducting certain specified short breaks). The maximum for each period on duty varies for different grades : it may be 10, 12, or 14 hours a day, with a total of 90, 96, 100, 102, 108, 111, 114, 132, or 144 hours in any period of two consecutive weeks. In Switzerland the average daily hours may be increased from 8 to 9 for work consisting largely in mere attendance. It may also be noted that in Czechoslovakia the hours on duty of station staff and platelayers may exceed 192 hours in four weeks if during this period their hours of actual work do not exceed 144. In Germany hours of work are calculated on the basis of 8 hours per day (48 hours per period of 7 days or 208 hours per period of 30 days) if the work is continuous and particularly exacting ; in other cases the maximum is 10 hours per day (60 hours in 7 days or 260 hours in 30 days).

A more detailed study of the various national regulations would show that a further effort is usually made to discriminate between hours of actual work and hours of attendance by prescribing to what extent the time spent on preparatory and supplementary work, travelling to or from work, waiting, being on reserve duty or on call, etc., are to be taken into account in calculating hours of work. A few examples may be given of regulations on this subject and also on intermittent work.

Preparatory and Supplementary Work.

Locomotive and train staff are sometimes allowed a fixed period for the operations preceding the departure and following the arrival of their train, irrespective of the time actually taken for these operations. In Belgium, for example, there is a specified time allowance for each station, engine-shed, and train for the operations to be performed before departure and after arrival.

In Czechoslovakia one hour is allowed for getting the locomotive ready before departure ; one hour is counted for returning the locomotive to the shed, if this is done by the driver and fireman, or 20 minutes if it is done by other workers. For train staff, the subsidiary duties before departure are counted as one hour for guards of main-line trains and half an hour for other train staff (the maximum may be increased to 2 hours for the staff of goods trains) and the duties on arrival as 15 minutes for all grades. In Estonia, the time required to take over the locomotive and train, prepare them for departure, and hand them over to the next shift counts for two hours in all. In France the time allowed for the operations required before departure or after arrival is indicated on the schedule for each train.

For other categories hours of work are sometimes extended to allow for preparatory and supplementary work. In France, for instance, the daily hours on duty in preparatory and accessory work may be increased by one hour for second charge hands of squads and workers of lower grades and 2 hours for foremen and first charge hands of squads.

Travelling Time.

The whole or part of the time spent by locomotive or train staff in travelling to work at a station or depot other than that near their home or returning home after coming off duty is sometimes counted as actual working time. The same applies to journeys made by workers engaged in the construction or maintenance of the permanent way in going to and from the place where they are working or in travelling from one workplace to another in the course of the same day's work. In Belgium, for locomotive and train staff, journeys on engines running light or on empty trains, journeys on foot from one station or depot to another, either during the period of duty or at its beginning or end, and journeys taken by order for the purpose of replacing someone temporarily absent, attending an enquiry, or giving evidence in a court of justice, are counted as actual work. In Latvia, time spent in going from one workplace to another is counted. In Great Britain staff working away from their home station are paid for the whole period from the time they check in at their home station to the time they check off at the same station, including, therefore, the time spent on travelling ; overtime rates are paid for any time in excess of

the normal working hours. The allowance for distances covered on foot is 20 minutes per mile. Platelayers usually take up duty at the hut where they left their tools the night before and knock off at the place where they leave them in the evening. If this involves undue hardship for some of the men, the question can be discussed and settled on the spot. In Italy, for locomotive and train staff, two-thirds of the time spent on passenger journeys by train, taken by order, from one place to another, to take over duties or to return from them, is counted as hours of work. In Estonia, Germany, Latvia, and Switzerland, half the time spent on travelling to and from work counts as working time ; the same applies in Poland for journeys from the normal place of employment to work at some other point on the line. In Spain all travelling time up to one hour is counted as working time, one hour is counted for a journey of more than one but not more than 2 hours, and half the time if the journey exceeds 2 hours.

Waiting Periods.

Periods when the locomotive or train staff have to wait at intermediate or terminal stations count in full towards hours of work if they are of short duration or if during them the workers concerned are not allowed to leave the engine or train. If the waits are longer or if the workers may leave the engine or train, only a fraction is counted as working time. In some cases the whole waiting period is counted as a rest period. In France, when the interval between the arrival of one train and the departure of the next does not exceed an hour and a half, it counts in full as working time. In Italy, hours of work include the time during which the locomotive and train staff rest between their arrival with a train (the actual time of arrival if the train is late) and their departure with the same or another train, if this break falls between two scheduled journeys and does not exceed 2 hours in the case of locomotive staff and 90 minutes in the case of train staff. In Latvia, breaks not exceeding one hour at outward termini count as three-quarters of their length towards working time and breaks of from one to 3 hours as half their length ; breaks lasting more than 3 hours do not count as working time. In Poland, for locomotive staff, two-thirds of any break exceeding one hour is counted as working time. In Portugal only waiting periods not exceeding one and a half hours count as working time.

Breaks.

Breaks during periods on duty for reasons beyond the control of the staff are generally included in calculating hours of work, either in part or at least up to a certain maximum. In Belgium, for locomotive and train staff, all scheduled breaks at the place of residence, except those of 2 hours or more, and all scheduled breaks away from the place of residence, except those of 8 hours or more when the worker is obliged to sleep away from home, count as working time. If, however, the workers are free for 2 hours or more by schedule when away from their place of residence, 2 hours is deducted when calculating their hours of work. In Italy breaks of not less than one hour during which the worker is allowed to leave the workplace are not included in calculating hours of work. In Latvia, when the beginning of the work is delayed for reasons for which the worker is not responsible, the waiting time is deemed to be spent on reserve duty.

Time Spent on Reserve Duty.

Time spent on reserve duty, unless the worker is continuously employed during the period, is usually only partly counted in calculating working time. For locomotive or train staff the fraction counted may depend on whether steam has to be kept up or the train supervised. In Estonia, Italy, and Spain half the time spent on reserve duty counts as working time. In France, for locomotive staff, one-third of every period of emergency reserve duty, during which workers are merely required to remain continuously at the depot without performing any special work there, after deduction of the time allowance for making ready spare engines, and in Poland, for all workers, one-third of the time spent on reserve duty, counts as working time. In Latvia, for locomotive and train staff, half the time spent on reserve duty is counted if no work has to be done, and three-quarters if the locomotive or train has to be supervised. In Portugal, for locomotive and train staff, quarter of the time spent on reserve duty (half in the case of locomotive staff when steam has to be kept up) counts as working time. In Germany, 50 per cent. of the period of attendance counts as working time for train staff, and for locomotive staff when steam has not to be kept up, and 80 per cent. for the latter group if the engine has to be supervised. In Belgium, however, periods spent on reserve

duty in the station or shed are counted in full for locomotive and train staff. This is so also in Finland for the time spent on reserve duty at the workplace by the locomotive staff, to whom the Eight-Hour Day Act applies, and in France for periods on working reserve duty, during which the workers may be employed in various tasks at the depot or on the station.

Time Spent on Call at Home.

Time spent on call at home does not count for so much as time spent on reserve duty on the station or at the depot, for in the former case the worker can do what he likes at home and is only obliged to hold himself in readiness for work if called upon. In France, for locomotive and train staff, and in Norway, for all workers, time spent on call at home counts for quarter of its length. In Italy, for locomotive and train staff, half the time spent on call away from home counts as working time.

Intermittent Work.

For persons engaged in intermittent work, such as most watchmen, crossing keepers, etc., the period on duty is longer than the normal hours fixed for work in general. In Belgium, for instance, the period of duty for workers engaged on intermittent work is equivalent to the hours of attendance; the normal length is 12 hours a day for workers provided with a dwelling at their workplace and 10 hours for others. Work is deemed to be intermittent if, taking into account all the duties to be performed, there remain repeated intervals distributed over a period of 8 hours which are sufficiently long to make up a total of 2 hours, provided the worker is free to employ these periods of interruption of work as he pleases at his post, subject to the duty of responding to any call made upon him. In France, for workers whose work is intermittent, the regulations simply fix limits for the daily hours on duty or hours of attendance.

Spreadover and Daily Rest Period.

It often happens that the day's duties have to be performed in a number of spells separated by intervals (breaks, pauses for rest, etc.). In this case the time between the beginning and the end of the day's duties includes the duration of actual work together with all these breaks. The total period over which the hours of work are distributed constitutes the " spreadover ".

Here again it is clear that measures must be taken to restrict the length of the spreadover so as to leave a sufficiently long period of continuous rest in every 24 hours, or at least after every period of duty, unless the conditions are such that the worker is continuously on duty, as is the case for some workers who have merely intermittent duties and are housed on the spot.

For this reason many regulations fix a maximum for the spreadover. In Belgium this maximum is 12 hours a day. In France, for locomotive and train staff, the average length of the working day between two successive periods of complete rest may not exceed 10 hours, with a daily maximum of 12 hours ; the total may however be extended to 14 hours on not more than two occasions between two successive periods of complete rest. For other grades the daily maximum is 12 hours, except for certain specified categories ; e.g. at stations and halts for workers whose duties are directly connected with the train service or the passing through of trains or are dependent on the conditions under which these stations and halts are open to the public, the spreadover is 13, 14, or 15 hours according to circumstances ; for workers whose employment is such that a limit is fixed only for their hours on duty or hours of attendance, the spreadover may vary from 12 to 24 hours according to circumstances, without prejudice, however, to the rest periods specified in the rules of employment. In Germany the maximum is 10, 12, or 16 hours according to the nature of the work. In Italy the spreadover is in general 12 hours, but may be extended to 14 hours in certain cases for locomotive and train staff. In Switzerland the average is 13 hours per day for each period of 14 days, or 13½ hours if the worker is housed near his work-place ; the absolute maximum is 14 hours, including making up lost time (15 hours in special circumstances, provided that the average for any three consecutive days does not exceed 13 or 13½ hours).

A regulation which also aims at limiting the length of the spreadover is to limit the number of spells of work and consequently also the number of breaks. For instance, the maximum number of breaks per day is two in France (for workers other than locomotive and train staff ; in exceptional cases three breaks), Norway, and Spain, and three in Belgium (workers other than locomotive and train staff) and Switzerland.

The effect of limiting the spreadover is to procure a continuous rest period between two working turns or periods on duty.

Sometimes the process is reversed and the regulations prescribe a minimum for the rest period, thus indirectly limiting the spreadover. The length of the daily rest period is usually shorter if it is taken away from home, so as to reduce the time spent by the worker away from home. For locomotive and train staff the minimum daily rest in Belgium is 10 hours at home or 8 hours away from home ; in Czechoslovakia 10 hours or 6 hours (at the outward terminus); in France 14 (or 13) or 9 (or 8) hours (locomotive staff); in Germany 10 or 8 hours (8 hours for line and station staff); in Italy 15 hours (locomotive staff), 14 hours (train staff), and 8 hours (as a general rule); in Poland 9 or 7 hours ; in Portugal 14 or 9 hours ; and in Spain 10 hours (12 after more than 13 hours' continuous duty) or 8 hours (10 after more than 13 hours' continuous duty). In Great Britain and the Irish Free State the rest period is in general 12 hours for workers on regular duty at their home station and at least 9 hours for other workers. In Switzerland, for all grades, the rest period is 11 hours on an average over any period of 14 consecutive days, or 10½ hours if the worker is housed near the station ; the minimum is 9 or 10 hours.

Night Work.

Wherever possible this rest period is taken at night. There are however a number of important services which involve night work. Most countries have special regulations on this subject. Among them are rules restricting the number of nights that may be spent on duty during a specified period and the number of consecutive nights on duty.

In France, for workers other than locomotive and train staff, the total number of night turns may not exceed one-half or one-third the number of days included in the cycle of shifts, according as work is organised in two or in three shifts. In Italy, for locomotive and train staff, the number of turns on night duty is limited to 4 in a period of seven consecutive days, in the Netherlands, for locomotive staff, to 7 nights a fortnight, and in Switzerland, for all grades, to 14 nights in four weeks.

The maximum number of consecutive nights on duty is 2 in Austria, 3 as a general rule in Poland (in exceptional cases 4 or 5), 4 in Germany for locomotive and train staff and 7 for other workers, 7 in Finland, Latvia, and Switzerland, and 8 in France (workers other than locomotive and train staff).

Weekly Rest.

The hours of work or the hours on duty in the course of any one week are also indirectly limited by the regulations on the weekly rest, which is also sometimes described as the periodical long rest period, period of complete rest, or some such term, as the rest day cannot always be given at regular intervals of six days. The regulations generally deal with the minimum duration of the rest, the maximum interval between two successive rests, and the number of rest days which must fall on Sunday.

The weekly rest period must not be less than 34 hours in Belgium, 36 hours as a general rule in Denmark, 30 hours in Finland for locomotive staff, to whom the Eight-Hour Day Act applies, 38 hours in France for locomotive staff and 24 hours immediately after or before a daily rest period for other staff, from 24 to 32 hours in Germany, 36 hours in Italy for locomotive and train staff and 24 hours together with a daily rest period of 9 hours for other staff, 32 hours in Latvia, 30 hours in the Netherlands and (with some exceptions) in Norway, 24 hours in Poland and in Spain, and 24 hours in Switzerland, where it must follow immediately or very closely after a daily rest period of at least 9 hours.

The maximum interval between two of these rest periods is 10 (in exceptional cases 14) days in Belgium, an average of 6 days and a maximum of 9 or 10 for locomotive staff in France and 10 (in exceptional cases 14) days for other staff, 14 days in Poland and Portugal, 10 days for ticket inspectors in Spain, and two weeks in Switzerland, with a maximum of five weeks between two successive Sundays of rest.

With regard to making the weekly rest fall on a Sunday or public holiday, it may be noted that in Germany, as far as possible, 17 rest days a year must fall on Sunday or a public holiday, in Switzerland 20 in principle on Sunday or a general holiday, and in Poland 12 on Sunday for shift workers. In the Netherlands and Norway the rest day must fall on Sunday once in each period of three weeks. In Latvia one-third of the rest days must, as far as possible, fall on Sunday or a public holiday.

It should also be noted that the rules governing the daily rest period, the weekly or other longer rest period, and night work all play an important part in determining the amount of latitude permissible in the distribution of hours of work.

While no attempt has been made to analyse the national regulations in detail, the examples cited above will suffice to show that on all the points mentioned there are numerous detailed provisions governing the calculation and the arrangement of hours for various kinds of work or duties or for different grades of staff.

Overtime

All the provisions examined in the preceding pages deal with normal working hours. These hours may have to be extended for a variety of reasons : accidents, urgent repairs to equipment or plant, *force majeure,* exceptional pressure of work. For the first three of these cases the regulations permit exceptions to the normal hours to the extent necessary to restore normal working conditions as soon as possible. For exceptional pressure of work, overtime is generally authorised so as to allow the traffic to be dealt with as quickly as possible. In some regulations, however, the amount of overtime is limited, but no distinction is made between the different purposes for which it is allowed. In Belgium the hours of workers other than locomotive and train staff may be increased to cope with unusually heavy traffic up to not more than 10 hours per day during not more than three months in the year. In Czechoslovakia overtime must not exceed 240 hours per year. In Denmark, as a general rule, overtime must not exceed 15 hours per month for locomotive staff and 30 hours for other staff. In France, workers other than locomotive and train staff may work not more than 175 hours of overtime per year to meet exceptional pressure of work. In Spain, in workshops and services not directly connected with the running of trains, hours of work may be extended only with the agreement of the workers concerned, and then only up to 50 hours per month and 240 hours per year; in other services, in urgent cases where it is not practically possible to relieve the staff, the working day may be compulsorily prolonged up to a total of 14 hours per day on not more than two consecutive days and on not more than ten days per month. In Sweden, for cases other than accidents or other unforeseen circumstances, hours of work may be prolonged by not more than 30 hours per month and 150 hours per year.

The rate of pay for overtime is usually higher than the normal rate. The increase in Belgium is 25 per cent. for the first

2 hours, 50 per cent. for the remainder, and 100 per cent. on Sundays; in Great Britain and the Irish Free State usually 25 per cent. for overtime worked by day and 50 per cent. for overtime worked at night, and in many cases on Sundays; in Hungary from 25 to 100 per cent., and in Poland from 50 to 100 per cent., according to grade, number of hours, and day; in Latvia 50 per cent. for the first 50 hours during any month and then 100 per cent.; in Norway 50 per cent.; in Portugal 25 per cent.; in Spain 25 per cent. for all voluntary overtime, and 25 per cent. for the first 2 hours of compulsory overtime and then 50 per cent.; in Switzerland 25 per cent.

On the whole, therefore, the regulations for overtime (reasons for which it may worked, maximum permitted, rates of pay) seem to be practically the same as for industry in general.

General Principles of a System of International Regulations

The preceding survey shows that the national regulations on hours of work in railway undertakings contain extremely detailed provisions on a very large number of points concerning the hours and the organisation of railway work. It would be very difficult for international regulations to follow their example in this respect, for the details vary from country to country and from one railway system to another. The rules which apply in a densely populated country with a close network of lines, heavy traffic over short distances, and a large number of depots, so that journeys can be relatively short, are entirely unsuited to the needs of a sparsely populated country with railway lines few and far between, on which the traffic is light, the distances often very long, and the depots far apart, so that the workers have very long journeys to make. Even within one country the characteristics of different lines may be quite different. If international regulations tried to go thoroughly into each detail and cover every point dealt with in the national regulations in such a way as to be in harmony with all of them, a special Convention for railways would obviously be required. As the Convention would have to contain so many detailed provisions, it would be extremely difficult to draft it, and still more so to find formulæ to cover all the national practices on each question. The result would either be so elastic as to be of little practical value or else so rigid that constant difficulties would arise in its application.

It therefore seems preferable merely to adapt the fundamental principles of the international regulations on hours of work in industrial undertakings to the requirements of railway undertakings. This can be done by laying down certain general standards within the framework of the Convention and leaving the national regulations to conform to these standards while retaining the detailed rules which are the fruit of long experience. In fact, the general standards must recognise the two essential necessities mentioned above, which have been dealt with in a variety of ways in the national regulations, namely :

(1) The necessity for the undertakings to have considerable latitude in the distribution of hours of work;

(2) The necessity of taking into account, in calculating hours of work, all periods during which the worker is engaged not in actual work, but in duties requiring little effort or attention and sometimes consisting in mere attendance.

If the undertakings are to have the necessary latitude in arranging the timetables of their staff, the regulations must fix not a strict daily or weekly limit of hours but only the average weekly hours of work. There should also be considerable latitude for the calculation of this average, as regards both the period over which it may be calculated and the maximum hours which may be worked in any one day or week. This could be achieved in international regulations by not fixing a limit to the period over which the average may be calculated, laying down no conditions for the distribution of hours of work, and allowing the undertakings, provided they do not exceed the specified average, to exceed the daily or weekly maximum which may be prescribed for industry in general. Such very elastic provisions would however leave scope for abuses; the regulations should therefore prescribe that the competent authorities, after consulting the employers' and workers' organisations concerned (or at any rate representatives of the employers and workers), should draw up rules for the detailed application of these provisions. In this way the railways, while remaining within the general framework of the international regulations on hours of work, would have great latitude in distributing the hours of work placed at their disposal as best suited their special conditions and the needs of the service.

For persons engaged in preparatory or supplementary work, and persons employed on duties which, by their nature, involve

long periods of inaction during which they need exert no physical effort or sustained attention, or need merely remain at their post in case of being called upon, the international regulations might merely lay down a general rule allowing the limits fixed for normal hours of work to be exceeded. Here again it would be necessary for the competent authorities in each country to issue rules as to the maximum number of hours of work, hours of attendance, or hours on duty permitted ; these rules would be based on the existing regulations concerning the relation between hours of attendance and hours of actual work or the coefficients attributed to certain duties.

Provisions of this kind included in the international regulations on hours of work would thus ensure that the fundamental principles of the regulations were observed on the railways, while all details would be left to the competent national authorities. Those authorities could then take measures to adapt the existing national regulations so as to bring them into harmony with the international standards.

As regards overtime, there seems to be no reason, as was pointed out above, why the national regulations concerning overtime on railways should differ perceptibly from those on overtime in industry in general. The general provisions on the subject in international regulations for industry could therefore be applicable without change to railway undertakings.

Workers' Education in Great Britain

by

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In pursuance of a decision of the Governing Body, the International Labour Office has conducted a world-wide enquiry into the relations between organised labour and workers' education, and has promoted the exchange of information on this subject between the leaders in workers' education in different countries. It is proposed to publish in the International Labour Review *a series of articles, of which this is the first, arising out of the enquiry, on the state of this educational movement in several countries in which it has attained a high degree of development.* [1]

GREAT Britain was the first country to be industrialised. The aftermath of the Industrial Revolution produced its social effects earlier in the British Isles than on the Continent; both the Labour and the co-operative movements had their origins in England; and the beginnings of special effort for the education of industrial and other workers may first be seen there also.

It is difficult to appreciate the attitude of organised labour to workers' education in Great Britain without some preliminary description of the British adult education movement. While the movement has undergone profound changes in outlook and emphasis during the present century, the origin of many groups and tendencies must be sought in a history which stretches back to the early days of the Industrial Revolution. Those who wish

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[1] An article of similar scope dealing with the movement in Belgium has already been published in the *Review*. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIV, No. 1, July 1931: "Workers' Education in Belgium", by Marie-Thérèse NISOT.

to study the earlier phases may do so in a historical survey by Mr. Dobbs[1], while a number of monographs have also been written dealing with different aspects of the subject. We are concerned here with the past only so far as it lives in present organisations and policy, but in Britain there is a deep-rooted tendency to avoid any sudden change in the structure of political and social institutions. This means that something of the past colours most innovations, while fundamental changes are often masked by continuity in the *form* of British institutions. There is also a wide-spread distrust of theoretical constructions —British workers and their representatives prefer concrete schemes to abstract speculations. They act vigorously, but philosophise little, as compared with their comrades of, say, Germany and Russia.

These tendencies must be taken into account in any estimate of British adult education. While some of the most important associations are of recent growth, they have arisen out of movements with a long history behind them. A full understanding of workers' education in Britain involves a study both of the trade union movement and of nineteenth-century humanitarianism and social reform. The present relationship between the State and certain associations which provide workers' education finds a parallel in many other fields: co-operation between official and voluntary bodies is a characteristic of the British social services to-day—the most striking example is the recognition of trade unions and friendly societies by the State as the channel through which certain forms of social insurance are administered. Local authorities have wide powers to grant financial assistance to voluntary associations for certain purposes. In particular, the British educational system involves partnership between public bodies and the managers of voluntary schools. The extension of this principle of co-operation into the field of workers' education (and adult education in general) is thoroughly characteristic of the modern British outlook. The character of the British adult movement makes classification of the various bodies concerned almost impossible, so great is the diversity of their relationship to the working-class movement, to the public authorities, and to each other. But the movement as a whole is so closely related to social thought and organisation, which have changed profoundly in the course of the last century, that

[1] A. E. Dobbs: *Education and Social Movements 1700-1850.* London, 1919.

a rough chronological division is perhaps the best basis for a working classification. Three periods suggest themselves: (*a*) the period before 1900; (*b*) the period between 1900 and 1918; (*c*) the period since 1918. In each period associations of widely differing types have been founded, but most of them bear the marks of the particular phase of the national life in which they originated, although, like most British institutions, they have shown a surprising power of adaptation to changing circumstances.

Associations Founded Before 1900

The older associations, however, continued to exist, and in varying degrees adapted themselves to the conditions of the new century. It is not easy to give an account of a number of the movements which had their rise in the nineteenth century. This report is confined by its terms of reference to workers' education; but in Britain, while there are associations whose main object is the education of adult workers, there are also many agencies for adult education which, while not specially designed for workers' education, nevertheless include among the members of their classes a considerable proportion of adult workers. There are also working-class movements which include education among their aims, although the bodies concerned were founded in the main to serve other ends. The picture would be incomplete without some reference to these activities, but in a report on workers' education, the space allotted to them must necessarily be less than a balanced account of adult education—or of the working-class movement as a whole—would require.

The Adult School Movement

The founding of the Adult School Movement at the end of the eighteenth century was the first organised attempt at adult education. The "schools" were self-governing groups of men and women (generally in separate "schools"), meeting weekly (often on Sunday) for mutual improvement. The problem of illiteracy was the main objective of these early schools, and at their meetings thousands of men and women learned to read and write. The movement had from the first a non-sectarian religious background. With the development of the system of public education, the character of the schools changed, but their religious and social motive and their democratic character per-

sisted. The membership remains predominantly working-class. They are federated into the National Adult School Union, which in 1932 included over 1,300 " schools " with over 40,000 members. The Union publishes an annual handbook, giving outlines of a " connected series of lessons " as a basis for the weekly discussions, which are still preceded by a devotional meeting. The adult schools do not themselves provide class-work in the sense of continuous instruction by a lecturer or tutor, though certain schools arrange with the Workers' Educational Association for classes for their members. A full account of the Adult School Movement has recently been published.[1]

The Co-operative Movement

Robert Owen, the pioneer of the British Co-operative movement, laid great stress upon the need for education as an instrument of social progress. From early days, the British movement has conducted classes in co-operative principles and practice. Most local societies appoint an education committee, and devote a proportion of their funds to educational work. The Co-operative Union organises correspondence courses in a variety of subjects. Most of the classes are frankly propagandist in character, and aim at the instruction of the members in co-operative history and ideals. Members are organised into men's and women's guilds, while junior guilds or " comrades' circles " have now been founded by most of the larger societies. In recent years there has been a growing tendency to broaden the basis of this educational work, and in many centres classes in general subjects have been arranged in conjunction with the Workers' Educational Association, to which the Co-operative Union is affiliated.

Mechanics' Institutes

The philanthropic and educational movement of the middle of the nineteenth century took many forms. In the growing industrial towns, mechanics' institutes were founded, and were for a time centres of vigorous activity among the workers who attended them. While the instruction given in their evening classes was based upon a training in craftsmanship, many of the institutes also provided courses in general subjects, and the move-

[1] G. Currie Martin: *The Adult School Movement.* London, National Adult School Union, 1924.

ment did much to prepare the way for later forms of workers' education. With the establishment of more formal provision for technical instruction in schools and colleges of various grades, the mechanics' institutes declined, though there are still a few active institutes of this kind.

Evening Schools and Polytechnics

The middle of the century also saw a vigorous campaign for the establishment of evening schools giving general education (a development of the eighteenth century night school), mainly by voluntary societies founded for that purpose. These classes were largely attended by young workers, and have contributed greatly to the spread of literacy and of general knowledge. When, later in the century, Government grants were available without the restrictions which hampered the earlier schools, they extended both their activities and their membership, and so paved the way for the vigorous evening institutes now established in London and in many towns in the provinces. The polytechnics founded in London to satisfy the growing demand for technical instruction now provide a broad curriculum with a wide choice of subjects, both technical and general.

Colleges for Working Men and Women

The Working Men's College, founded in London in 1854, was the first of its kind. Its aim is "to place a liberal education within the reach of working men". The Morley College for Working Men and Women and the Frances Martin College (formerly the College for Working Women) are other non-residential colleges with similar general aims.

The Working Men's Club and Institute Union

This Union, which was founded in 1862, is an association of workers' clubs. In addition to its general activities, which include the promotion and defence of the clubs, the Union holds classes and week-end schools, in the main by arrangement with the Workers' Educational Association.

Settlements

The social settlements, established in London and elsewhere during the nineteenth century, included educational work among

their activities, as most of them do to-day. Regular class work is generally organised by arrangement with one of the national associations, while the settlement itself may conduct the more informal activities.

The University Extension Movement

The University Extension Movement, founded by the University of Cambridge in 1873, was one of the most striking developments in adult education during the nineteenth century. Oxford followed in 1874, and all university bodies in England and Wales now organise extension courses. The aim is to provide teaching of university standard for those who cannot attend the university itself. Each meeting of the course generally consists of a lecture, followed by discussion and class work. University Extension was not primarily a workers' movement, but those who petitioned Cambridge for the first classes included members of the Crewe Mechanics' Institute and other workers' representatives. These lectures, given by lecturers sent out by the universities, were (and in many centres still are) attended by large numbers of adult workers, although they are not designed specially to meet their needs. The Extension Movement marked the entry of the universities into the field of adult education. The tutorial class is now a more usual form of university provision for workers' education. The scope of this report makes it inappropriate to describe the Extension Movement at length, but its importance in the development of adult education can hardly be over-estimated. [1]

This short account of associations for workers' education which arose in the nineteenth century (and which, for the most part, are still active) is by no means complete. It must serve to indicate the fertility of invention and the enthusiastic purpose which animated the movement at that time. Each of these associations has contributed to the tradition and practice of British adult education, while the variety of aim and organisation which they exhibit makes it difficult to give a reasoned account of the movement as a whole. Its relations with the social and economic development at the time are at once so close and so diverse that any attempt at generalisation would be misleading.

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[1] For an account of the movement, cf. W. H. DRAPER: *University Extension 1873-1923*. Cambridge, University Press, 1923.

Associations Founded between 1900 and 1918

While no definite date can be cited as marking the transition between the older and the modern phases of the adult education movement, the beginning of the present century saw many changes of emphasis, and the foundation of most of the new associations which are most characteristic of the present time.

With the inauguration of social insurance the State accepted responsibility for functions which had, till then, been considered as wholly within the province of voluntary associations. The trend of social legislation began to take what the late Professor Dicey has called a " collectivist " direction.[1] The Education Act of 1902 established Local Education Authorities as the successors of the old school boards, and voluntary schools were brought within the ambit of the public system of elementary education. The State showed an increasing readiness to enter the field of industrial relationships, and to provide (directly or indirectly) for the regulation of hours and conditions of labour. The trade union movement strengthened its local position, and increased its membership. An organised Labour Party appeared in the House of Commons. These changes were acompanied by a heightened confidence in the working-class movement. The times were favourable for the development of workers' education.

The Workers' Educational Association

The Workers' Educational Association (W.E.A.) was founded in 1903 by a group of working men under the inspiration of Dr. Albert Mansbridge. Like many of its predecessors, the Association aims at the extension of facilities for general education to adult workers, but its organisation and emphasis was from the first in harmony with the spirit of the new century. Its method was to organise classes of various kinds, university tutorial classes (24 meetings a year for three years), one-year classes, and, more recently, terminal courses. In connection with the first, it succeeded in securing the establishment at universities of joint committees, composed partly of university representatives, partly of representatives of working-class organisations nominated through the Workers' Educational Associa-

[1] A. V. Dicey : *Lectures on the Relation between Law and Public Opinion in England during the Nineteenth Century.* London, 1919 (2nd ed.).

tion. Its classes were intended not merely to be gatherings at which university teachers would put their knowledge at the disposal of working-class students, but self-governing groups, where students and teachers would educate each other by free discussion and the interchange of ideas.

The Association is by its constitution non-party in politics and non-sectarian in religion. It has taken the view that its function is not to inculcate any particular doctrine, but to provide the educational facilities needed to enable working-class students to widen their knowledge and to be of greater service to the various movements in which they are engaged. It is based partly on individual memberships, partly on affiliated societies, such as trade unions and co-operative societies. Its units are branches linked together by district federations whose work is in turn co-ordinated by the central authority. The policy of the Association is directed by its annual conference; within this policy the districts have a wide autonomy.

The Association itself appoints the tutors of its one-year classes and terminal courses, while tutorial class tutors are appointed by, or on the recommendation of, the joint committees of the several universities and the Workers' Educational Association. Discussion in class is free and untrammelled. Particularly in the more continuous courses, serious study is a condition of class membership. Books are provided by arrangement with libraries, and (except in some of the shorter courses) students are required to write papers.

The Association is recognised by the Board of Education as a "responsible body" for the conduct of one-year classes and terminal courses, and grants in aid of these classes are paid by the Board of Education to the Association. Many local education authorities for higher education also make to the districts of the Association grants in aid of their work.

In addition to the classes, summer schools for short periods of full-time study are conducted by joint committees, and there is a summer training course for prospective tutors, held at Holybrook House, Reading.

The organ of the Association is *The Highway*.

Residential Colleges

This period also saw the beginning of the movement for residential colleges for working-class students. Among those

providing education on the same principles as the W.E.A., one of the most important is Ruskin College, Oxford. It is chiefly supported by trade unions, co-operative societies and the Working Men's Club and Institute Union, though there are in addition a large number of individual subscribers. The subjects taught include economic history, local government and the history of co-operation and trade-unionism, as well as English literature, French and German. There is also a most successful correspondence course. The college is tending to become an international institution for working-class students.

There are now a number of other residential colleges. Of these, Avoncroft College, near Evesham (for agricultural workers), Coleg Harlech, North Wales (closely associated with the W.E.A.), Hillcroft College, Surbiton (for working women), Fircroft College, Bournville, and Woodbrooke, Birmingham—together with Ruskin College—have recently associated themselves with certain national bodies interested in promoting residential adult education, and have set up a joint advisory committee for this purpose. Honorary advisers to intending students have been appointed in a large number of centres in England and Wales. Mention must also be made of Holyoake House, Manchester (organised by the Co-operative Union), and of the Catholic Workers' College, Oxford.

The National Council of Labour Colleges

In workers' education in Great Britain, the predominant method and attitude are somewhat similar to those which are represented in British working-class policies. A different attitude, which claims to be based on Marxian economics, is taken by the National Council of Labour Colleges. This association began with the foundation of the Central Labour College, London, in 1909, as the result of a secessionist movement from Ruskin College, Oxford. It was supported primarily by two large trade unions. Further groups of students with similar aims were organised in a number of towns, and the National Council of Labour Colleges was formed to give them a common aim and policy. The Council's general outlook and the trend of its efforts are indicated briefly in the following statement which has been communicated :

The chief aim of workers' education should be to equip workers for carrying on the class struggle, in other words, for carrying out

the work of their own organisations. That does not, of course, mean simply a kind of trade-union or Labour-Party technical education—the sort of education that would enable workers to deal with their day-to-day difficulties; we mean an education that does include that, but has a much wider scope, because it is directed to equip workers to carry out, in the old phrase, the historic mission of the working-class movement—the substitution of Socialism for Capitalism. That does not mean that workers' education is in the narrower sense of the term purely propagandist while orthodox education is not propagandist. Both types of education have a purpose behind them. The difference lies in the difference in purpose. Both, therefore, may be propagandist or both may be non-propagandist: it depends how one interprets the word.

With regard to the methods adopted, our main work consists of running trade union education schemes, which provide the following facilities: (1) Free access to classes; (2) Free correspondence courses; (3) Occasional branch lectures; (4) Free access to non-residential day and week-end schools. This is paid for by a capital charge and the union or other organisation has full representation upon our controlling committees.

The Council refuses to apply for financial aid from the State, upon the ground that such aid would interfere with its independence. For the same reason, it does not seek co-operation with the universities.

The organ of the National Council of Labour Colleges is *The Plebs*.

In 1929, the residential Labour College, London, had to be abandoned owing to financial stringency. The statement contributed continues:

Nevertheless, the Council maintains its position and insists that the trade union movement must realise that it "must pay for real workers' education; in other words, that its industrial and political opponents cannot be its educational friends."

The same principle of complete independence is emphatically asserted in certain articles of the Constitution of the National Council of Labour Colleges, as, for instance, in Divisional Rule No. 8: "All officials must accept the principle of independent working-class education, and therefore at all times be opposed to all other so-called working-class educational organisations which are not entirely under the financial and administrative control of the Labour and co-operative movement and its component parts."

The National Industrial Alliance

This body was founded in 1916 "to negative the idea that there is an essential and necessary antagonism between the interest of employers and employed". It includes among its activities the establishment of classes on economic subjects, "controlled by

equally balanced committees of employers and employed and conducted under university and other recognised educational auspices, for the training of employers and trade unionists".

Educational Settlements

This movement is in the main a recent development. "Beechcroft", the first educational settlement, was founded in Birkenhead in 1914. There are now seventeen settlements affiliated to the Educational Settlements Association, as well as a number of other "associated" centres of a similar type. Educational settlements generally organise a wide variety of classes and groups. The programme generally includes tutorial classes and courses organised by the W.E.A. Most of these settlements teach craft work of various kinds, and musical and dramatic classes are often an important part of the settlement's activities. Six residential colleges for working-class students are also affiliated to the Association.

Developments since 1918

There has been a great expansion of workers' education since the war, in the main through the growth and development of the older associations, though certain new bodies have also entered the field. Few of these are primarily concerned with workers' education, but since their classes and other activities include a proportion of working-class members, some attempt must be made to describe them.

The National Federation of Women's Institutes

One of the most rapid developments in the broader field of adult education is the National Federation of Women's Institutes. The first institutes were founded in 1915, and the Federation in 1917, but the movement belongs essentially to the stream of development now under discussion. These institutes, which generally hold monthly or fortnightly meetings, have been organised in over five thousand villages, and have a membership of nearly 300,000. They arrange lectures on general topics, and hold classes in music and drama, while handicrafts, domestic science and hygiene have a prominent place in their programmes.

Rural Community Councils

These councils have been organised in twenty-three administrative counties, with the object of promoting co-operation between public bodies and voluntary associations engaged in social service, including adult education. In certain counties, the rural community council has achieved considerable success in the establishment of classes and lectures for adults in the villages, generally in co-operation with a university and with the Workers' Educational Association and other bodies concerned. Rural community councils are associated with the National Council of Social Service. Their activities cover a wide field, but their work for rural adult education is alone relevant to the subject of this report.

The British Broadcasting Corporation

Broadcasting is clearly one of the most important of the new instruments for the education of adults. The British Broadcasting Corporation (B.B.C.) has allocated certain periods of programme time—at present eight periods a week—for series of adult educational talks (including two periods for languages). These talks are arranged on the advice of the Central Council for Broadcast Adult Education, which is composed in the main of representatives of national bodies concerned in adult education. Associated with the Central Council are area councils established in selected districts of Great Britain. The Central Council and the area councils promote the formation of " listening groups "—which may be formed in any part of the country—to hear and discuss the talks broadcast. The B.B.C. has appointed education officers for each district where an area council has been set up. The talks cover a wide variety of subjects, including a study of contemporary economic and social conditions. In addition to the " talks programme ", " talks pamphlets " are published dealing with selected series of talks, as an aid to study.

Recent Developments in the W.E.A.

Since the war, there has been a remarkable growth in the membership and activities of the Workers' Educational Association. In 1924, the Board of Education issued special regulations governing the payment of grants for adult classes, and the Association has taken full advantage of the new position. Until

the enforcement of national economy in 1931, expansion in the number of classes was rapid ; even under the present restrictions, there has been an increase in the number of classes, though the development of the longer (and consequently more expensive) types of course has been seriously hampered. In the year 1932-1933, there were 2,879 classes with 58,545 students. In addition, 1,400 students attended the 11 residential summer schools.

There has also been a broadening of the field of subjects studied. In the earlier days of the movement, economics (including economic history) accounted for a high proportion of the classes. Last year, 22.07 per cent. of the classes were in literature and drama, and 22.28 per cent. in economics, or economic, social and industrial history. Next in order came psychology (8.48 per cent.), general history (8.21 per cent.), science (7.48 per cent), and political and social science (6.30 per cent.). The remaining classes were divided among a wide variety of subjects, including philosophy and religion, music, elocution and dramatic art and public speaking, languages, local and central government, and anthropology and human geography (in that order).

Another development worth noting is the growth in the number of courses of from 12 to 20 meetings. Although the number of three-year tutorial classes has steadily increased, there have been attracted to the movement thousands of new students who find satisfaction in these shorter courses, often attending regularly over a period of years and so studying a variety of subjects less intensively. There is no evidence that the standard of work in tutorial classes has suffered by the recruitment of these students. On the contrary, those who wish for more continuous study find their way later into tutorial classes, and are all the better for this preliminary training, while the movement has gained in flexibility and in its capacity to meet a variety of needs.

The W.E.A. was at first mainly an urban movement. Since the war, there has been notable progress in rural areas. Tutor-organisers (often called " resident tutors ") have been appointed in many districts, either by the Association or under the auspices of a joint committee. A resident tutor appointed to develop a county scheme takes certain courses himself (particularly tutorial classes and " pioneer " courses in new centres); the rest of his time is spent in travelling round his area and organising classes which are then taken by other tutors. In 1931-1932, the W.E.A. organised 428 classes in centres with a population under 2,000

— for the most part in villages and the small market towns. In this work, as in much else, the Association has had the generous financial support of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.

Another feature of the most recent period has been the growth of local schemes of co-operation, particularly in rural areas. A number of these schemes are described in a recent report of the Board of Education.[1] There is no standardised pattern, but in most cases the scheme is based on a partnership between a university body and the W.E.A. district (associated in the joint committee) and the Local Education Authority, sometimes with the co-operation of other bodies concerned in adult education. In certain counties, a joint advisory committee for the "pioneer" side of the scheme has been constituted as a committee of the rural community council; in other counties an *ad hoc* advisory committee has been set up; in others, again, there is no special local committee. In some districts the W.E.A. has appointed area organisers to assist the district secretary in promoting classes.

The Workers' Educational Trade Union Committee

The relation of the W.E.A. to the trade union movement has been greatly strengthened by the foundation of the Workers Educational Trade Union Committee (W.E.T.U.C.) in 1919, the first union to join being the Iron and Steel Trades Confederation. The following description of the origin and work of the Committee has been communicated:

> The Confederation had long felt that trade unions should do something practical to stimulate among their members a demand for education, which, whilst cultural in the main, would assist them in preparation for various forms of public service, particularly in connection with the trade union movement. The Confederation sets aside every year £1,000 for its educational work.
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> This Confederation was subsequently joined by the Railway Clerks' Association and the Union of Post Office Workers, and to-day the Workers' Educational Trade Union Committee has 13 unions connected with it, including some of the largest, such as the Transport and General Workers' Union and the National Union of General and Municipal Workers.
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> Last year, over £4,000 was contributed by the organisations concerned to meet the activities of the Committee. A difficulty which the trade unions experienced was that whilst they could provide money for education, they had not at their disposal the necessary national

[1] BOARD OF EDUCATION: *Adult Education and the Local Education Authority.* Paper No. 11 of the Adult Education Committee. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1933. 2s. 6d.

machinery. After full investigation, it was decided to work through the W.E.A., which placed its machinery at the disposal of the W.E.T.U.C.

The method is to arrange for trade unions whose organisations are affiliated to the W.E.T.U.C., day schools, week-end schools and one-year and three-year courses.

The subjects of study are diversified, as the following list will show: trade union history and problems, co-operative history and problems, industrial history, political history, history of social movements, problems of reconstruction, industrial administration, local government, political theory, economic theory, international problems, psychology, biology, social psychology, sociology, philosophy, literature, music, art.

In 1932-1933, 180 W.E.A. classes included a majority of W.E.T.U.C. students; 71 of these were tutorial classes. Thirty-seven "week-end schools" were arranged by W.E.T.U.C. divisional committees in the different areas. A number of unions in the W.E.T.U.C. offer correspondence courses.

Trade Unions and Workers' Education

This is probably the best place at which to offer some comments upon the attitude of organised labour to workers' education. The following statements have been communicated:

It is not surprising that trade unions have been to the fore in their advocacy of the extension of facilities of knowledge to union people. Interestingly enough, it was the organisation which catered chiefly for unskilled workers (now the National Union of General and Municipal Workers) which took the leading part in the trade union propaganda for extending the school-leaving age. As far back as 1898, a resolution including the following demands appeared on the T.U.C. agenda:

"This Congress emphatically condemns the education policy of the present Government, and declares—(1) That in this question of the education of the nation's children, the workers should ever keep in view as their ideal, the democratic principle of 'Equality of opportunity', and should not be satisfied until the highest educational advantages which the country affords are within the reach of all. (2) That as it is a duty which the community owes to posterity to see that no future citizen lacks the requisites to a healthy development of body and mind, a measure should be brought before Parliament which shall empower school boards to provide food for the many thousands of starving and under-fed children who are to be found in the people's schools throughout the country. (3) That the school age be raised to 14 years, and such maintenance provided by the State as shall place secondary education within the reach of every worker's child."

The next stage of development in the propaganda was the inclusion of day-time continuation classes in the trade union programme. The National Union of Clerks and Administrative Workers was responsible for this, and the following resolution under its name appeared on the T.U.C. agenda of 1909:

"That from the age of 16 to 18 years, classes shall be provided during the day-time to enable the students to learn thoroughly the theoretical and practical side of their work, and that employers shall be compelled to allow their employees the necessary time off to attend such classes."

Deputation after deputation waited upon successive Ministers of Education, and in the "Fisher Act" of 1918, both permission to local authorities to raise the school-leaving age from 14 to 15 years, and the day-time continuation classes, were included. Unfortunately, however, no progress has been made in these two directions owing to the "axe of economy" falling upon progressive social legislation. Since then, continuous agitation has taken place upon these two points, but, so far, without practical success.

In due course a demand was made that the Trade Union Congress itself should become responsible for educational work of a different character. It now has its own Educational Committee which is responsible for the administration of the fund it provides. Its aim is to promote working-class trade union education, although it co-operates with other working-class educational bodies and with the older universities in extra-mural work.

In view of the extensive field covered by other agencies for cultural education, the Trade Union Congress has set itself to occupy, mainly, a restricted but extremely important field of activity. The fact is that the foreshadowing of fundamental changes in our social and industrial systems gives education a new meaning to trade unionists. It is realised that those holding executive positions of responsibility must have a wide range of knowledge regarding economic and political problems and their minds so trained as not only to enable them to come to prompt and right decisions for the immediate present but also to take a long view as to possible ultimate results. A new type of trade union official is being evolved, and his power will be largely dependent upon and guided by the enlightenment of those whom he represents.

The General Council realises, therefore, that the future trade union leaders must be equipped with a knowledge of all branches of administration. To this end, it has organised for the past two years a fortnight's summer school at Ruskin College, Oxford. The school can be considered to be a technical one inasmuch as it deals specifically with trade union administration, workmen's compensation, social insurance, factory legislation, etc., although it has special lectures on subjects such as international co-operation and so on. This method of training promises to be very fruitful of results.

Furthermore, the Trades Union Congress provides six scholarships to Ruskin College every year, and last year made it possible for four young trade unionists to attend the International Summer School in Bernau. The Council has its representatives on the executive of the W.E.A., the National Council of Labour Colleges and the governing body of Ruskin College, and is associated with the extra-mural bodies of Cambridge and Oxford Universities.

The Extra-Mural Work of Universities

Mention has already been made of the foundation of the University Extension Movement in the nineteenth century, and of

the formation of joint committees for tutorial classes. Co-operation between the University of Oxford and the W.E.A. led to the establishment of joint committees, first at Oxford, and later at all other universities in England and Wales. After 1918, certain universities established extra-mural departments, with a relation to the joint committees which varies in the different universities. There has been a great expansion of extra-mural work since the war, and most universities now regard themselves as responsible, in co-operation with the W.E.A. and other bodies concerned, for the development of the courses of higher standard throughout a definite area ; in some cases the work includes pioneer schemes under the direction of resident tutors.

Certain universities—notably Oxford and Cambridge— offer residential scholarships to enable working-class students to undertake full-time study in the university.

The Work of Public Authorities

The relation of the State to adult education in England and Wales can only be understood in the light of the English tradition of co-operation between official bodies and voluntary associations. In elementary and secondary education, official provision has been built upon a foundation of voluntary effort which it has nowhere completely superseded. In adult education, if the evening schools of the nineteenth century be excepted, the voluntary movement was well established before the State entered the field. Except in London and a few large towns, there is little direct provision of adult education by the State (that is, by the Local Education Authority, with the assistance of grants from the Board of Education).

In London, the men's institutes, junior men's institutes, women's institutes, literary institutes, and general institutes have been remarkably successful, and many of them include a high proportion of working-class students. The total attendance in 1930 was 55,000. Among the provincial towns which make somewhat similar provision Birmingham, Bristol, Leicester, Bradford, Manchester and Hull may be mentioned. One or two County Education Authorities appoint resident tutors or make direct provision in some other way.

For the most part, however, Local Education Authorities assist the work of voluntary associations by grants, by the loan of premises, by providing books from the public libraries, and by

offering scholarships and bursaries to adult students. The extent and amount of this assistance vary greatly in different areas. A number of Local Education Authorities now co-operate in the joint schemes established in certain rural areas. Special mention must be made of the county libraries, established with the aid of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Grants from local authorities are generally made on a class basis, but in some case "block grants" are paid to W.E.A. districts and to other voluntary bodies.

The Board of Education assists the adult educational work of universities and of "recognised" voluntary bodies by grants graded according to the type of class and the number of "satisfactory" students. Classes aided by grants are open to inspection by His Majesty's Inspectors, who are appointed by the Board of Education.

Conclusion

Adult education in Great Britain is rightly described as a "movement", and it is difficult in a short report to do justice to its many-sidedness and at the same time to present a coherent picture. Statistics are apt to give a false impression; students must be weighed as well as counted if the importance of their activities is to be justly estimated. At first sight, it might seem that adult education in Great Britain touches only a small proportion of the workers. Statistically, that is true; yet the influence of the movement on working-class thought and activity is far greater than the figures would suggest. Its significance must be sought in the intimate relation between the classes and much of the formative thinking in the working-class movement as a whole. Nor is the influence of an association like the W.E.A. confined to class work. Many branches organise activities of a social and broadly educational kind outside the classes, and the democratic character of the association provides, in the branch and district meetings, a valuable if informal education in citizenship.

The movement owes much to the help and support of many bodies and persons to whom reference cannot be made in a report of this kind. In particular, the educational trusts have offered generous assistance on many occasions—in addition to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, mention should be made of the Cassel, Gilchrist and Thomas Wall Trusts.

This report has been confined to an account of the bodies which provide classes or grants. A fuller statement would make mention of the British Institute of Adult Education, the Tutors' Association, and other bodies with an individual membership which, by the issue of publications and the holding of conferences, have contributed to the formation of opinion and the shaping of policy.

Again, nothing has been said of special work for the unemployed. So far as the provision of classes for unemployed men and women is concerned, this is done in the main by the bodies whose work has been described. The welfare schemes which have been established in a large number of centres would seem to fall outside the scope of the present report, which is concerned only with workers' education in the accepted sense.

For somewhat similar reasons, the broadening of adult education in the direction of crafts has been passed over. Perhaps the time is ripe for fresh definitions of the scope and purpose of workers' education ; but this is not the place to attempt such a task.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Overtime and the Economic Depression

It will be remembered that the International Labour Conference, at its Seventeenth Session in June 1933, decided that the emergency procedure which had been originally contemplated should not be applied to the question of the reduction of hours of work, and voted in favour of the ordinary double-discussion procedure.

In consequence of this decision, Mr. Jouhaux, French Workers' Delegate, at the closing sitting of the Conference, submitted the following resolution concerning the limitation of overtime, which was adopted by 77 votes to 17 :

" Whereas the practice of working systematic overtime would be liable to increase the volume of unemployment ;

" Whereas, moreover, a habitual extension of hours of work beyond the general limits laid down by legislation may constitute a form of social dumping ;

" The International Labour Conference, as an immediate step, requests the Governments of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation and industrial bodies to take all necessary steps, either by administrative action or by collective agreements between organisations of employers and workers, to suspend the application of exceptions from the 48-hour week prescribed by laws or regulations or by practice. Nevertheless, in exceptional cases in which it is impossible to suspend the application of exceptions owing to technical difficulties, seasonal requirements, or the necessity of complying with a time-limit in executing orders subject to a penalty for non-fulfilment, these exceptions should be reduced to a strict minimum.

" The Conference requests the International Labour Office and the States Members to exchange information on this subject."

The object of the resolution is therefore twofold, namely, first, to compensate to some extent for the delay in dealing with the question of the reduction of working hours, and secondly, to point out the necessity for abolishing the practice of systematic overtime in order to mitigate unemployment.

The text of the resolution was communicated to the States Members of the Organisation and they were requested to inform the Office of any measures taken or contemplated to suspend the application of exceptions to the 48-hour week prescribed by law, regulations, or practice.

Replies have so far been received from 30 States, namely, *Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, China, Colombia, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Italy, Latvia,*

Lithuania, Luxemburg, Mexico, the Netherlands, Nicaragua, Norway, Poland, Siam, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the Union of South Africa, Venezuela, and *Yugoslavia.*

In accordance with the desire expressed in the resolution that the International Labour Office and the States Members should exchange information on the subject, it was decided that any such information received by the Office should be brought to the notice of the other States Members of the International Labour Organisation through the publications of the Office, and in consequence all replies received have been published at regular intervals in *Industrial and Labour Information.* [1]

It is proposed in the following pages to show the position in the different countries which have replied and to indicate the various methods used to reduce overtime.

Two States, *Colombia* and *Nicaragua,* have informed the Office that no difficulties in respect of employment have been so far encountered; the question of taking measures in the sense of the Resolution does not therefore arise.

The *Siamese Government* points out that it is not a party to the Convention concerning hours of work and, moreover, the social, industrial, and economic conditions in the country are still very different from those prevailing in Europe.

The Government of the *United States of Mexico,* where the principle of the 8-hour day in industry was embodied in the Federal Labour Act of 1931, has confined its reply to a general declaration in favour of the employment of additional workers where overtime is systematically required, without any indication of proposed measures in this connection.

The *Chinese Government* replies that in view of the economic and labour conditions now obtaining in China it is not possible to suspend all exceptions to the 48-hour week at the present time. The Government is, however, endeavouring, as far as possible, to apply the principle of the 48-hour week as provided in the amended Factory Act of 30 December 1932, and will continue its efforts to limit the amount of overtime worked.

The Government of *Venezuela* states that it need take no action to give effect to the terms of the Resolution as no exceptions are allowed to the 9-hour day established by the Labour Act of 1928. This Act expressly stipulated that " processes requiring longer hours of work shall be performed by auxiliary wage-earning or salaried employees other than those employed during the working day of 9 hours. Every agreement stipulating a working day of more than 9 hours shall be null and void. "

It is common knowledge that the economic depression has resulted in a large number of undertakings in practically all countries being unable to work even the normal week of 48 hours, and has further

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[1] Cf. Vol. XLVIII, No. 10, 4 Dec. 1933, pp. 295-299; Vol. XLIX, No. 3, 15 Jan. 1934, pp. 73-79: No. 8, 19 Feb. 1934, pp. 255-261; and No. 13, 26 March 1934, pp. 429-431.

led to an almost universal movement in favour of shorter working hours. The tendency in some countries is towards legislative action, either to reduce working hours generally or to extend the scope of existing legislation, or even to enact special provisions for specific industries. As these general measures, however, are outside the scope of the Resolution, which is concerned only with the suspension of exemptions from the 48-hour week, the information supplied on this point has not been taken into consideration in this survey.

As a result of the depression overtime has been negligible or non-existent in certain countries ; this fact is specially emphasised by the Governments of *Finland, New South Wales, Norway, Sweden, Tasmania,* and the *Union of South Africa.*

The restriction of overtime in order to provide additional employment, or at least to avoid further dismissals, has been due to action on the part of employers and workers *(Austria, Finland, Germany, Italy, Norway, Switzerland),* or (in the majority of cases) to the initiative of the administrative authorities *(Austria, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Hungary, India, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland,* and *Yugoslavia).*

It is proposed to examine below the different measures taken.

Action on the part of Employers and Workers

In *Italy,* the General Fascist Confederation of Italian Industry issued a circular in February 1933, designed to meet the wishes of the Ministry of Corporations and to give effect to a resolution on the subject of the 40-hour week and the limitation of overtime, adopted by the National Council of Corporations in June 1932. This circular indicates general guiding lines to the members of the Confederation and calls attention to two principles of vital importance in the struggle against unemployment, namely, (1) the reduction of hours of work is preferable to the dismissal of workers, and (2) the engagement of additional staff on a temporary or permanent basis is preferable to the authorisation of overtime. The Confederation called upon the officers of all affiliated organisations to see that the instructions issued were fully enforced.

In *Germany* there is at present a strong tendency not only to do away with any working week longer than 48 hours which exists in the present economic conditions but to reduce the working week voluntarily below 48 hours, to 40 hours a week as a general rule, in order to ease the labour market. Efforts are made to maintain the shorter working hours even in cases where additional work is required for special reasons, e.g. in the case of short-term deliveries, by the engagement of additional workers and, if necessary, the organisation of several shifts. It is, however, not always possible to avoid overtime entirely, as is recognised by the Resolution. The voluntary reduction of working hours is generally carried out by the managements of the undertakings.

In *Finland*, in consequence of the economic depression, weekly working hours have for several years past been below the fortnightly average of 96 allowed by law, varying from 88.48 to 93.23. In certain industries actual working hours have been still further reduced, and employers have voluntarily introduced a five- and even a four-day week, with the two-fold object of employing the greatest number of workers and of reducing production.

In *Austria*, the representatives of certain industries, especially of the sugar industry, expressed their willingness to facilitate the gradual and complete elimination of overtime. The measures taken have given satisfactory results through the extension of the three-shift system by means of the engagement of additional workers.

In *Switzerland* also some important branches of industry connected with the building and timber trades and tile and brick works voluntarily abstained from applying in 1933 for a collective permit authorising a modification of the working week, in spite of a certain activity in the building trade.

In *Norway*, the collective agreements in force generally contain a clause to the effect that overtime shall be confined to the strict minimum. In the present state of employment the trade unions are particularly careful to see that the provisions on the subject are complied with.

Administrative Action

In *Hungary*, in the absence of any legislation, administrative action has been limited to a request of the Minister of Commerce addressed to the Central Association of Employers to invite its members to respect the limits fixed in the labour agreements and contracts of employment, etc., and to engage additional workers in cases where the workers already in employment are unable to complete the work within the agreed hours. Overtime, the Minister stated, should be worked only in quite exceptional cases arising out of technical difficulties, pressure of work due to seasonal requirements, etc., and it should be considered a patriotic duty in these difficult times to provide work for the largest possible number of workers.

In *Italy*, as already mentioned, the National Council of Corporations in June 1932 considered the question of the 40-hour week and adopted a Resolution which referred explicitly to the question of overtime, urging action by the occupational organisations with the object of limiting overtime and work on public holidays to cases in which the requirements of production and consumption make it absolutely necessary.

In the majority of countries where legislation exists, the intervention of the authorities has generally taken one or other of the following forms: (*a*) instructions to factory inspectors; (*b*) general measures tending to restrict overtime; (*c*) authorisation of overtime only if additional suitable labour is not available; and (*d*) suspension of special facilities and overtime grants allowed by the law.

(*a*) *Instructions to Factory Inspectors.*

In several countries the Governments, already in the early days when the effects of the economic depression were first beginning to make themselves felt, drew the attention of the factory inspectorate to the importance of the strict enforcement of the hours of work regulations. Subsequently, the industrial authorities were repeatedly requested to see that overtime permits were only granted in cases of absolute necessity. The terms of the Resolution on the subject of overtime adopted by the International Labour Conference were in some cases also brought to the attention of factory inspectors with the recommendation that the principles enunciated therein should be observed wherever possible.

In *Austria* the Ministry of Social Welfare has repeatedly instructed the industrial authorities and inspectors in circular letters to insist upon the strict application of the hours of work regulations and to oppose the working of unwarranted overtime with the utmost severity, in view of the difficult situation of the labour market.

In *Czechoslovakia* the Minister for Social Welfare has endeavoured to limit to the minimum the number of overtime permits granted under the Eight-Hour Day Act. To this end he requested the factory inspection authorities by circular letter of 31 December 1929 to grant overtime permits only in cases in which it was impossible to find any means of avoiding an extension of the normal working hours. In subsequent communications the Minister has referred to this circular letter and again emphasised the necessity for a permanent reduction in the number of overtime permits. Similar instructions have been given to the provincial authorities at Prague, Brno, Bratislava, and Uzhorod. The result of these efforts is the reduction in the number of hours' overtime worked from 16,277,873 in 1929 to 1,228,454 in 1932. In pursuance of the resolution adopted by the Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference the Minister again reminded the factory inspection authorities of the absolute necessity for reducing overtime to a minimum.

In *France*, in 1931, labour inspectors were instructed not to permit the working of overtime which depended upon their authorisation and to dissuade employers from making use of the overtime at their free disposal.

In *Poland* the Minister for Labour and Social Welfare and the chief factory inspector have repeatedly emphasised the importance of reducing overtime. In this connection a number of circular letters issued since 1931 to regulate the activities of the factory inspectors in respect of hours of work in the sugar industry provide that work in this industry shall be organised in three shifts of 8 hours each for skilled indoor wage-earning and salaried employees, and as far as possible in four shifts of 6 hours each for outdoor and unskilled indoor workers. The result of these measures may be gauged by the fact that the number of workers employed in the sugar industry in Poland rose from 47,430 in October 1928 to 57,116 in October 1932 in spite of a reduction in the volume of production. This increase

of 20.4 per cent. is almost entirely due to the practically complete abolition of overtime.

In accordance with suggestions made by the Unemployment Committee in *Yugoslavia*, the Government Department concerned advised the district factory inspectors at the beginning of 1931 that overtime should only be allowed in cases of absolute necessity. Following the adoption of the resolution on overtime at the Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference, the Minister for Social Policy and Public Health forwarded the text of the Resolution to the district factory inspectors and recommended that the principles contained therein should be applied wherever possible. At the same time inspectors were requested to furnish reports on the results obtained in this direction.

(*b*) *General Measures tending to Restrict Overtime.*

Amongst the general measures tending to restrict overtime the most effective is the increased rate of remuneration provided for in most hours of work regulations for all time worked in excess of the normal limits laid down by the law. Sometimes these rates are very high, making overtime uneconomical, and in recent years heavy penalty rates have been fixed in industrial awards with the express object of curtailing overtime, or again proposals have been made to increase current overtime rates with the same object in view. In other countries more general measures have been applied, as, for instance, increased penalties for infringements of the law or the subordination of permits to a decision of joint boards.

Industrial awards issued by the court of arbitration in *Western Australia* have, for many years past, prescribed a heavy penalty rate for time worked in excess of the ordinary working hours, principally with a view to curtailing overtime. In *South Australia* the practice of working a greater number of hours per week than 48 or 44 respectively is continually discouraged and when extra time is worked extra wage rates must be paid. In *Victoria*, in most trades which are subject to Wages Boards Determinations, the maximum number of hours is fixed at 48 per week and the rates for overtime worked in excess vary from time and a quarter to double time. These rates make overtime uneconomical and tend greatly to restrict the hours of work to the normal limit of 48 a week.

In *India* proposals have been placed before the Legislature to reduce working hours and to enhance the rates of pay due for overtime.

In *Luxemburg* the authorities have systematically limited overtime permits.

In *Poland*, since September 1931, the Minister has endeavoured to subject the grant of overtime permits to severe restrictions, particularly since the promulgation of the Act of 1931 amending the Hours of Work Act of 1919, which increases penalties for infringements and confers penal and administrative jurisdiction on the factory inspector.

In *Spain* the Act of 1931 places severe restrictions on overtime, subordinating the grant of permits to decisions of the official joint boards which exercise restrictive powers, instead of leaving the matter to the judgment of the employers and workers concerned.

(c) *Authorisation of Overtime only if Additional Suitable Labour is not Available.*

One of the main objects aimed at by the reduction or suppression of overtime is the possibility thus offered for the engagement of additional workers. The importance of this has been widely recognised and in a number of countries the competent authorities have paid particular attention to this aspect of the question when called upon to examine individual applications for exemptions from the normal working hours prescribed.

In *Western Australia*, before granting an exemption, the Minister must be satisfied that the extra overtime required to be worked is genuinely for the purpose of meeting an unforeseen press of work or extraordinary circumstances, and approval is invariably withheld if after enquiry it is found that additional suitable labour is available for employment or if for other reasons it is considered that the exemption should not be granted.

In *Belgium* each application for exemption is carefully examined and is granted only in cases of recognised urgency or when the re-engagement of additional workers is materially impossible.

In the *Netherlands* each application for overtime of any importance is carefully investigated on the spot by the factory inspection authorities and a permit is only granted when it has been proved that the difficulties cannot be overcome in any other way. In particular, the possibility of engaging suitable unemployed workers to meet the demand for labour is examined and the permit is frequently refused if there is reason to believe that other undertakings would be in a position to carry out the orders in question.

In *Poland*, the Minister for Labour and Social Welfare has made it incumbent upon factory inspectors to refuse a favourable report on applications for overtime in cases where the engagement of unemployed workers is materially possible. As regards salaried employees engaged in drawing up balance sheets or taking inventories, permits are only granted in respect of those holding positions of management.

In *Sweden* the Labour Council which is competent to authorise exemptions from the hours of work legislation has, for some considerable time past, been examining the possibility of the engagement of additional workers to meet increased requirements in working hours. In many cases the workers, and especially the workers' unions, when consulted on the subject have opposed the granting of such exceptions in order to ensure employment to their unemployed comrades.

The reports submitted by the cantonal authorities in *Switzerland* on the subject of the application of the Factory Act in 1931-1932 show that every effort was made to restrict the number of permits

granted and in every case the possibility of engaging additional workers or introducing a special arrangement of working hours was examined. At the same time the reports also show that in spite of the depression it is not possible to avoid overtime entirely as orders are very often received irregularly ; the term of delivery is sometimes very short and it is generally impossible to enlarge premises and increase equipment with a view to a more rational organisation of work.

(*d*) *Suspension of Special Facilities and Overtime Grants Allowed by the Law.*

The normal distribution of working hours as provided in most systems of regulation is not always easily applicable to all industries. In consequence a more elastic system has frequently been provided, either by permitting a different distribution of working hours or by placing a fixed amount of overtime at the free disposal of the employer to meet special requirements. The question of suspending these facilities and of cancelling or reducing such overtime grants, at least during the continuance of the economic depression, has been under consideration by the authorities in various countries and has, in certain cases, led to effective measures being taken in the matter.

In *Belgium*, the question of suspending the exemptions allowed under the Eight-Hour Day Act of 1921 has been under consideration for the past two years. Action has been taken mainly in respect of the building industry and public works. This action was taken on account of the growth of unemployment in the industries concerned, and it was hoped that the strict enforcement of the Act would lead to the engagement of additional workers and also prevent further dismissals of those still in employment. In addition, the application of an equivalent but more elastic system of working hours so far permitted in the flax-retting industry has been suspended, and the Government has stated that it will consider the advisability of further temporary restrictions for the purpose of combating unemployment with due regard to the various interests involved.

In *British Columbia (Canada)* the policy of the Board of Adjustment entrusted with the administration of the Hours of Work Act has been to eliminate overtime wherever possible. The number of temporary permits granted was reduced from 161 in 1928 to 93 in 1930 when the Board decided that, in order to spread employment over as many workers as possible, no further temporary exemptions would be granted until conditions again became normal. In addition, it has under consideration the cancellation of some of the permanent exemptions granted when the Act first became effective in 1925.

In *Denmark* a Bill dealing with the prohibition of overtime has been submitted to the Rigsdag.

In *France*, in consequence of instructions to labour inspectors in 1931, the making up of lost time due to bad weather, to collective interruptions of work, etc., was no longer permitted in many parts

of the country, and particularly in the Paris district; further, the number of hours' overtime normally allowed was considerably reduced both in the textile and in the milling industries, and permission to make up time lost owing to local holidays or other local events may only be granted up to a maximum of 40 hours per annum. In addition to these measures, in April 1982 the Minister of Labour proposed to amend the 8-hour day decrees so that in the event of exceptional and prolonged unemployment in an industry, on the application of one of the employers' or workers' organisations concerned, the Minister should be empowered to suspend, wholly or partly for a limited period, the overtime provided to meet cases of exceptional pressure of work. Applications have been made by the workers' organisations of a certain number of industries and the necessary authorisation has been granted in respect of the hides and leather, textile, and iron and steel industries, the manufacture of earthenware and china goods, and private offices, administrative services, and agencies. The extension of this measure to other industries is under consideration. Twelve orders have, in fact, been promulgated whereby the right to work overtime in order to meet exceptional pressure of work has been totally suspended in the textile industry in certain departments and districts for a period of six months as from 7 January 1984.

In *India*, the Department of Industries and Labour in bringing the text of the Resolution before the Local Governments suggested that the opportunity might be taken of reviewing exemptions under the Factories Act which permit individual workers to be employed in excess of the ordinary limits laid down in the Act. In particular, it was urged that the time would seem to be suitable for reducing to a minimum the cases in which workers are permitted to work more than 60 hours in a week.

In *Latvia* a decision of the Council of Ministers in June 1932 prohibited the working of overtime in all State municipal and industrial undertakings as a means of combating unemployment.

Conclusion

It will thus be seen that out of the thirty States Members who have furnished information in accordance with the Resolution relating to overtime, in two only — Colombia and Nicaragua — would there appear to be no unemployment problem. In the large majority of countries the increase in unemployment due to the economic depression has led to serious efforts by all concerned to increase or at least maintain the possibilities of employment. To this end one of the first measures contemplated was the gradual reduction of overtime.

In some countries the law provides for a certain amount of overtime without special authorisation, and employers have often voluntarily abstained from making use of this facility in order to provide additional employment, or an agreement has been reached between

employers and workers in specific industries to reduce overtime to a minimum, or, again, the administrative authorities have intervened either on the application of the occupational organisations concerned or on their own initiative. The principal methods adopted by the authorities were instructions to factory inspectors, general measures tending to restrict overtime, authorisation of overtime only if additional suitable labour was not available, and the suspension of special facilities and overtime grants allowed by the law. In nearly all countries use has been made of several of these methods. Finally, in a number of cases the text of the Resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference has been brought to the attention of the industrial authorities with a recommendation that the principles contained therein should be observed as far as possible.

Minerals and Civilisation in Africa

A most valuable contribution to the study of the problem raised by the employment of natives by European undertakings in Africa has recently appeared in the report of a Commission sent out in 1932 by the Department of Social and Industrial Research of the International Missionary Council to enquire into the effects of the copper mines of Central Africa, particularly Northern Rhodesia, upon Native society and the work of Christian missions.[1]

The Department of Social and Industrial Research was established in Geneva in 1930 as the result of a recommendation made by the Jerusalem (1928) meeting of the International Missionary Council which considered that it was " of vital importance that Christian bodies both in the mission field and in Europe and America should be adequately equipped for formulating and applying the social teaching of Christianity to questions of social organisation and of economic relations ".

It was in order to examine the problem of formulating and applying the social teaching of Christianity in a new and rapidly developing industrial area in Africa that the Commission under the chairmanship of Mr. J. Merle Davis, the Director of the Department of Social and Industrial Research, was sent to Northern Rhodesia. As the Foreword to the Commission's report says, " alien influences such as wage economy, European law and Christian teachings are shaking the foundations of Bantu life. Missions are deeply concerned with the changes

[1] *Modern Industry and the African.* An Enquiry into the Effect of the Copper Mines of Central Africa upon Native Society and the Work of Christian Missions made under the auspices of the Department of Social and Industrial Research of the International Missionary Council. Edited by J. Merle Davis. London, MacMillan, 1933.

these influences are bringing. The fibre and form of the Christian community and the healthy growth of the Church are dependent upon the new social and economic values and standards that are appearing." For this reason, as well as for its intrinsic value, this report is very opportune, and it may be hoped that it is only the first major work of an organisation that should be destined to play an increasing part in shaping missionary policy and in influencing social and economic trends in countries of growing industrial development.

The Commission's report is divided into five parts : an introduction dealing with the changing position of missions in Africa and the history of Northern Rhodesia, followed by chapters on the sociological problem (by Dr. Charles W. Coulter, Professor of Sociology of Ohio Wesleyan University), the economic problem (by Mr. E. A. G. Robinson, Lecturer in Economics in the University of Cambridge), the problem of government (by Mr. L. Marquard of Grey College School, Bloemfontein), and the problem for missions (by Mr. J. Merle Davis). Mr. Ray E. Phillips, Missionary and Welfare Worker, Johannesburg, and Miss Mabel Shaw, Principal of the Livingstone Memorial Girls' School, Mbereshi, were also members of the Commission. In the following pages, reference will be made more especially to the contributions of Dr. Coulter and Mr. Robinson, and for purposes of comparison the situation in mining areas in Africa not covered by the report will be mentioned.

Employment and Native Life in Africa

In a graphic description of a scene witnessed in a Rhodesian village, Mr. Merle Davis gives an epitome of the social and spiritual confusion into which European contact has plunged the African.

"The sports day of a Christian village in Northern Rhodesia revealed a strange mixture of Native and European modes and the lack of adequate channels for expression. Many of the players had learned football at the mines. Some wore faded blazers, shorts and shoes, others were in Native garb and played barefoot. The umpire was a mission evangelist. He carried a large Bible, as badge of authority, and held it aloft as a signal for opening play. Between quarters the players stood in line and sang hymns or beat upon drums while heathen dances were interspersed. We were told that the winning team was sometimes greeted by the spectators singing 'The Son of God goes forth to war', while the defeated side would be consoled with 'Art thou weary, art thou languid, art thou sore distressed ?'"[1]

Certainly the most potent factor in this contact in individual cases and probably the most far-reaching generally is the factor of employment, particularly as the employment of Africans by Europeans often means not merely the hiring of the Africans' services during the working day, but also their removal to long distances from their homes and traditional mode of living during the period of a contract

[1] *Modern Industry and the African*, p. 364.

which may extend into several years. The former Labour Commissioner for Tanganyika Territory puts the position as follows :

" The schoolmaster is endeavouring, too often with but moderate success, to train a small proportion of the youth of a tribe, while far greater numbers of the younger adults are receiving a rough-and-ready education in the rude school of industrialism ; the doctor does something to mitigate diseases and combat child mortality, but it may be in a group whose whole physical welfare is being jeopardised by conditions of work ; the administrator builds a system which, whatever its form, will meet its most severe testing from the returned worker ; and the missionary strives to propagate his ideals in the face of a rising tide of scepticism and contempt for authority. " [2]

While the majority of Africans in European employment are engaged in agriculture, considerable numbers are absorbed by mining employment with its greater disruptive effect on traditional life. The following table shows some recent figures of the African mining labour forces in the important mineral areas. The gold mines are employing more than ever before, but the figures for the base minerals areas mark a low level in recent years and are generally expected to increase.

Mining area	Date	Natives in employment
Rand	August 1933	232,803
S. Rhodesia	August 1932	36,050
N. Rhodesia	December 1932	6,667
Katanga	July 1932	3,758
Gold Coast	Average, April 1931 to March 1932	11,839
Kenya	August 1933	9,000
Nigeria	August 1932	18,089

Mining Labour Requirements in Northern Rhodesia

From the above table it will be seen that the number of Africans actually employed on the Northern Rhodesian copper mines at the end of 1932 was comparatively small. But the choice of Northern Rhodesia as the field of investigation for the Commission of the International Missionary Council is justified by two series of considerations.

In the first place, Northern Rhodesia is a new mining area. Geographically it lies between the Katanga and the Rand, both of which the Commission had the advantage of visiting, and which practice the contrary policies of long and short-term contracts, and of the recruiting of families with a view to the creation of a stable permanent labour force and the recruiting of men only ; moreover, the labour policy of Northern Rhodesia lies between that of its northern and southern neighbours in being a combination of short-term contracts with some measure of labour stabilisation brought about by permitting workers to be accompanied by their families to the mines. Further, the development of the Northern Rhodesian mines coincides with the

[2] Major G. St. J. Orde Browne : *The African Labourer*. International Institute of African Languages and Cultures. Oxford, University Press, 1933.

extended application of the method of indirect administration in the territory. A choice of labour policies and practices may still be open to the administration and to the mines and the results of such a choice may react for better or for worse on the policies of the neighbouring territories.

In the second place, as will be seen below, the labour absorbed by the mines reached a much higher figure in the peak year of development (1930), and the number of Africans estimated by Mr. Robinson in the economic chapters of this report to be required for normal exploitation will be not inconsiderable in relation to the resources of the territory. For although the economic depression has led to the curtailment of development and the closing down of all but the Roan Antelope and Nkana mines, Mr. Robinson has no doubt of the future importance of the Northern Rhodesian copper belt. The ores are sulphide and can be crushed, concentrated and smelted by simpler methods than can generally be applied to the oxydised ores of other areas. At the present rates of wages labour is cheap, and even the short experience of full working showed a remarkable increase in the rate of output per worker.

As regards labour costs, it was stated in December 1931 that the total average cost of each Native was estimated at Nkana at 2s. 6d. per day. This sum included wages, food, housing, free medical attention, food for wife and children and the pay of the compound manager and his staff.[1] Mr. Robinson reports that at the Roan Antelope mine the average wage per shift in August 1932 was 1.03s., and the cost of compound maintenance, food, welfare and repatriation 1.32s. At the Union Minière on the Katanga the average wage was 11 francs (Belgian), and the cost of social services about a further 15 francs. The output per Native man-shift below ground in the Roan Antelope mine rose from 1.5 short tons in July 1931 to 5.1 short tons in May 1932, an increase of 240 per cent.

The total number of Natives employed on all mines and mineral concessions in Northern Rhodesia rose from 8,592 in January 1927 to 31,941 in September 1930, and then fell to 6,667 in December 1932. The change was not entirely due to the changed world position of copper. In 1930, simultaneous development and construction work was being undertaken by a number of mines, and labour was partly employed upon buildings, roads, the installation of machinery and other tasks of a non-recurring kind. In September 1930, only 13 per cent. of all Native labour was employed underground, while in July 1932, 34 per cent. was so employed. At the latter date, output amounted to about 100 tons of copper per month for every 82 men. On this basis for the annual output of 240,000 tons estimated as normal by Mr. Robinson, a labour force of 16,500 men would be required. An increase in production, however, would not involve an arithmetical increase in labour. One estimate would place the numbers required for full capacity working at only 50 men per 100 tons per month. Placing the figure somewhat higher, the probable strength needed by

[1] *East Africa*, 24 Dec. 1931.

the copper-producing mines would be about 14,000, to which should be added 2,500 men for construction and development and for work on mines other than copper.

Mr. Robinson finds confirmation of this estimate in similar estimates made for the Katanga. In 1927 the Union Minière employed about 209 men for the production of 100 tons per month. By 1931 this figure had been reduced to 109 men and it is now said that with improved organisation no more than 6,000 men will be required for an annual output of 120,000 tons.

The labour required in Northern Rhodesia would not necessarily be supplied exclusively from the territory itself. Of 6,553 Natives recruited in 1931, 1,487 came from Nyasaland, and 865 from Angola, Portuguese East Africa, Southern Rhodesia and Tanganyika Territory. The foreign element, however, is not likely to be large. Nyasaland does not permit recruiting within its borders, and if the gold mines continue to prosper, Southern Rhodesian Natives will probably be absorbed within that colony or attracted south to the Rand. On the other hand, Northern Rhodesian Natives have themselves been accustomed to seek work abroad. In 1929, it was estimated that 42,450 Northern Rhodesians were working outside the territory, and even in the depressed year 1932, the estimated figure was 25,139. It is unlikely that this migratory labour will cease. Although the Katanga appears no longer to rely on Northern Rhodesian labour, 8,000 British African Natives, mainly from Northern Rhodesia, were still reported to be at work in the area at the end of 1932. Furthermore, the Government of the Union of South Africa has lifted the embargo on the employment in the Rand mines of Natives from north of latitude 22°, so that the southwards drift of Natives seeking employment, which already exists, is likely to be intensified.

The figures given above relating to Northern Rhodesian Natives working abroad cover all forms of employment; those so far given in connection with employment within the territory have been confined to mining employment. In addition, account must be taken of the fact that within Northern Rhodesia large numbers of Natives are employed away from their homes in other occupations. In 1930, for example, 48,639 Natives were estimated to be employed in other than mining occupations, of whom 10,883 were engaged in agriculture, 6,808 on the railways, and 12,470 in domestic service.

The Effect on Rural Areas

The resulting position is that in a predominatingly agricultural country with a fit adult male population of 295,000, which already has an adult male absentee population of from 25,000 to 40,000 and in which 48,000 men are on an average employed within the country but away from their homes, the mines will impose a labour drain away from agriculture and tribal life of 16,500 men.

This estimate, it may be noted, is less than the actual situation four years ago, when a total of 114,000 Natives was in employment, and when a mining labour force of 60,000 men was considered a possi-

bility. Apprehensions were then reflected in Government reports that the prolonged absence of an unduly large proportion of the able-bodied men might result in the breaking up of family and village life, a decline in the birth rate, and food shortage. The reduced demand for labour has temporarily removed these dangers. The report for 1932 of the Native Affairs Department points out that where in the past it was a common experience to find 40 or 50 per cent. of the males absent at one time, the average in 1932 did not exceed 15 per cent. and was often as low as 10 per cent. or less.

Nevertheless, the problem, if less acute, still exists. Mr. Coulter considers that one of the main obstacles to Native agricultural development is the absence of the men. The preparation for planting is left in the unaccustomed hands of women and children. In the case of cassava, which must be planted in plots serially for three years in order to have a continual supply, the absence of the planter for a year means that two years of the staple food supply has been cut off. Preparation of the wooded land and planting is neglected or the garden plots are so reduced in size as to be insufficient to meet the needs of the families. The moral life of the tribe also suffers from the absence of the men. Group integrity is broken down, parental control is relaxed and marital fidelity, both of the husband in his abnormal surroundings and of the wife in the village, is weakened. Mr. Coulter declares it a striking inconsistency to encourage tribal integrity under the system of indirect rule and at the same time to allow its disruption by the present chaotic economic system.

Similar criticism of the effect of distant employment on African Native development has recently been made in the case of the South African High Commission territories.[1] Moreover, the Report of the South African Native Economic Commission[2] emphasises the need for a policy of development in the Native reserves of South Africa if the economic and social attractions of urban life are not to be allowed disastrously to disturb the balance between industrial and agricultural production.

This problem as it concerns Northern Rhodesia is examined in some detail by Mr. Robinson, as regards both the territory as a whole and urban and rural areas within the territory. He concludes with reference to the first point that if it can be assumed that copper exports will be at least 200,000 tons in a normal year the problem of paying for the imports of European products should not create any very great difficulty.

The second problem, that of establishing a balance of payments between the country and the town, is, however, more obstinate. Mr. Robinson estimates that in 1931 the total earnings of men in employment approximated to £900,000, of which perhaps £180,000 found its way to the Native areas as cash, about £250,000 in the form of goods, and about £50,000 as tax receipts. The total sum of £480,000

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, March 1934, pp. 397-406: "Labour Problems of Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Swaziland."

[2] Cf. *Idem*, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, Oct. 1932, p. 543.

is thus regarded as an approximation to the value of the export of labour. To this extent European employment is subsidising Native rural life, and this will continue so long as labour continues to move between employment and the villages on much the same scale. Sociologically, however, the situation is unhealthy, since the Native villages obtain this cash advantage only in return for the sacrifice of those inhabitants who might enable them to produce goods to be offered in exchange. This is the position in the South African High Commission territories and parts of the Union of South Africa. In Northern Rhodesia, however, as will be shown later, there is a tendency towards the stabilisation of the labour forces. This will mean, according to Mr. Robinson, that the proportion of total earnings which will find its way into the rural areas will diminish, and, with the best jobs permanently filled, those who remain in the country will find it increasingly difficult to sell their labour.

Social Conditions on the Rand, in West Africa and in the Katanga

The organisation of the mining labour forces elsewhere in Africa illustrates the complexity of the problems that arise from the need of large concentrations of labour in mining areas.

On the Rand, where over 230,000 Natives are now employed, the workers are housed in compounds without their wives and families. The life of the gold mines being limited, it is held that neither the mining administrations nor the Government could take the responsibility of settling a vast permanent Native population in the Johannesburg area. There is no suitable land available, on which they could be settled under normal tribal conditions and by the cultivation of which they could live when mining employment ceases.

The advantages of this system are that the workers, who remain for an average of about ten months at the mines at any one time, do not lose contact with the life of the villages, while part of their earnings goes, as pointed out above, to relieve the poverty of the tribal areas. On the other hand, as will be seen in the recommendations of the Commission, the compound system is held to be productive of such physical, social and moral evils that the Northern Rhodesian village system is to be preferred in spite of its dangers.

In the West African goldfields, which employ a much smaller labour force than those of the Rand, labour is neither recruited nor subject to penal sanctions. Instead of the compound system, Native villages have sprung up or expanded near the goldfields, and there the labourers live with their wives and families in conditions with which they are familiar. It does not, however, appear that the workers receive the same material protection as in South Africa, while the haphazard creation of a population accustomed to meeting their money needs as they arise by a few days' regular attendance at work offers distinct dangers for the future.

A completely different policy has been followed in the Belgian Congo copper mining area, which also, of course, requires a labour

force which cannot be compared with that of the Rand as regards numbers. The Union Minière has been described as deliberately creating a new race of Africans, an industrialised, stable Native population which it is breeding and training to meet the need of its mining operations. In the first place, in order to safeguard the demographic position in the villages, the recruiting of men alone from rural areas has been strictly limited by applying the rule that in any community the normal adult male effective is the result of the formula :

$$\frac{\text{women} + \text{girls}}{1.03} - \text{boys},$$

and that nine-tenths of this number should remain in the village.[1] But the method of bringing men with their families to the mines is preferred, and unmarried men are encouraged to marry and settle in the mining areas. In the mining locations the recruits are acclimatised and trained ; family housing and gardens are supplied ; the wives are looked after as carefully as the men, and the children are educated, trained and apprenticed. In return, however, the mines insist on an initial three-year period of contract, as it has been calculated that the cost of recruiting a man varies from 2,700 to 3,000 francs and that by the time he is acclimatised, trained and stabilised, his capital cost amounts to 12,000 francs, since for each stabilised worker some three men require to be recruited.

This system is not without serious dangers, one of which, unemployment, has been revealed during the present economic crisis. The average labour force of the Union Minière declined from 17,257 in 1929 to 3,758 on 1 July 1932. While there were cases of real hardship, the great majority of the workers were able to return to agricultural life. Mr. Robinson points out, however, that this is possible in the present generation because almost without exception the mine workers have been brought up in a village and have learnt the everyday tasks of agriculture from their childhood. But it may not be possible in the next generation. Already in a Union Minière location the first child has been born of a father and mother brought up themselves under the supervision of the Company, thus being the forerunner of an industrial population with the strength of those trained to industrial life but with the weakness of having no alternative employment open to them.

Social Tendencies on the Northern Rhodesian Mines

The organisation of labour in Northern Rhodesia is characterised in the first place by the fact that the recruiting of labour is not of such importance as in some other areas. Even in the time of the

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[1] E.g. $\frac{103 \text{ women} + 103 \text{ girls}}{1.03} - 100 \text{ boys} = \text{a normal effective of 100 men}$; 90 men are required to be left in the village. Any actual numbers in excess of 90 may be recruited.

construction boom only a minority of the workers were recruited, and since the depression recruiting has been brought to a standstill. According to a Government report, the recruiting agent is regarded as having outlived his usefulness, in that Natives no longer require to be induced to go out to work and do not care to make contracts for long periods. Moreover, it is of interest to note that the average duration of the employment of the non-recruited worker, who was engaged on a monthly basis, was nine to ten months as compared with the six months' contract of the recruit. [1]

The stabilisation of labour is promoted by making provision for the wives and families of married workers. On the Roan Antelope Mine, on 31 December 1932, out of 2,344 workers 45 per cent. had their women and children with them, and to permanent workers grants were made of lands for the growing of vegetables and foodstuffs. The average duration for the employment of married men totalled 20.25 months, and for single men 9.79 months. At Nkana, the average stay for married men was 12.09 months and for single men 8.6 months.

All Natives are housed in mining locations divided into quarters for single men and for married workers and their families. The legal food ration is issued once a week to the wives of the married men on presentation of monthly food checks, while the wife and children augment the food issued by the purchase of small quantities of dried fish and the collection of certain other articles of consumption.

Although efforts are made for the social welfare of workers and their families in the mining locations, the picture of conditions given in the report shows that there is much room for improvement. Mr. Coulter states that in spite of unquestionably better food and hygienic conditions, it cannot be said that family life is on a higher plane than in the Native villages. The individual is away from tribal restraints and the supervision of his kindred. Women and children have little to do ; there is no compulsory schooling for children. The freedom of camp life emancipates all parties from Native custom. In addition to adultery and prostitution, temporary marriages are common, the " wives " being transferred to newcomers when the temporary husbands return home.

The situation is described as worse in the municipal locations and Native township settlements which have sprung up apart from the actual mines, though in connection with the industrial activity the mines have encouraged. Generally, Mr. Coulter considers, there is little doubt that the influence of urban life is socially disintegrating. The Native is disillusioned and confused ; neither in his work, his temporary home nor elsewhere has he come into contact with the constructive influences which are the dynamic of the higher civilisation, while he has been robbed of the traditional customs, ideals and sanctions of tribal life.

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[1] NORTHERN RHODESIA : *Annual Reports upon Native Affairs*, 1930 and 1932. By February 1932 the average period of service of workers on the Roan Antelope mine had increased to 11.9 months.

The Problem of Adjustment

While there appears to be a certain hesitation to encourage the growth of an urban class in Northern Rhodesia, present tendencies suggest its inevitability. Unless it is held that the African is permanently unsuited for such a life, the assimilation of the social lessons required by the urbanised population would not seem impossible, provided that the necessary administrative, educational and other measures are taken. As regards administration it is of interest to note that a system of non-tribal Native authorities *(centres extra-coutumiers)* has been put into operation in the Belgian Congo, and the question of a special legal status for the non-tribal Native has been discussed. It also is an essential part of the labour stabilisation scheme of the Katanga that the children should be compelled to attend school.

If, however, a permanent urban population is to be created it is of vital importance that it should be sheltered from the competition of workers subsidised by tribal lands and with lower standards of living, and this condition can only be secured by the improvement of the conditions of rural life and the creation of a proper balance between rural and urban economy. As Mr. Coulter says :

" In any discussion of the more spectacular process of stabilisation of workers on the mine, stabilisation of normal group life in the kraal cannot be minimised or forgotten. If the Native villages are to be regarded as reservoirs of cheap labour which can be drawn off in any desirable quantity and poured back when no longer needed, which can be used as an asylum for the unwanted or broken human wreckage, the consequences of the system ought to be faced. "

It is therefore urgent and essential that, alongside the granting by the mines of improved conditions of life and work to the urban population they are creating, the material progress of the rural populations should be actively promoted. Mr. Robinson finds, however, that the discovery of suitable exports from the country to the town is not a simple task. The inaccessibility of most of the agricultural areas renders the cost of transport of Native agricultural produce prohibitive, and the higher-priced crops (coffee, cotton, tobacco) require both more capital and greater knowledge than is at present at the disposal of most Native agriculturists. Small outlets may be found for agricultural products in some favourable areas and for semi-manufactured products (e.g. peanut oil, paper pulp). But " improvement must come principally from a raising of the standards of self-sufficient agriculture and from reduction to the lowest possible levels of taxation and other cash payments which make exports a necessity. "

Among the various suggestions made in the report of the International Missionary Council for the improvement of Native agriculture, rural industry and education, there is one of particular importance for the development of a better balanced economy in tribal areas, i.e. the encouragement of suitable handicrafts and the provision of markets. Mr. Robinson, while paying credit to the educational work

of missions, points out that they have been concerned firstly in training the craftsmen needed to create the mission station itself and secondly in providing craftsmen who can fit into the needs of a Europeanised society. Although as a result improved housing in the villages is to be noted, the chief result once again is the flooding of the urban labour markets. " The craftsman who seeks to ply his trade in a village finds himself confronted by great difficulties. In the first place, the communal habits of tribal life have not accustomed the Native to pay another Native for work.... In the second place, the Native has little or no money with which to buy.... Craftsmen are being educated to provide neither products which the village is accustomed to buy outside nor things which it can sell outside, but things in which the individual has long been accustomed to be self-sufficient. "

The general object of rural policy, it is held, should be to create nuclei, similar to that created by the copper mines, and comparable to the market towns of European countries, which can provide trading centres for craftsmen and places where grain or other produce may be exchanged for simple manufactures. The Government posts are too scattered and infrequent to provide this, although they do serve their own neighbourhoods to a certain extent; and the same is true of mission stations, with regard to which Mr. Merle Davis writes an eloquent passage comparing the modern missions in Africa with the monasteries in Central Europe from the seventh to the tenth centuries where a practical Christianity was demonstrated.

The Recommendations of the Commission

Of the many valuable recommendations made by the Commission [1] it is impossible here to do more than note a few which have a special bearing on the questions treated in the preceding pages.

Recruiting. The Commission draws attention " to the value of a general supervision of labour recruitment throughout the Protectorate which would protect certain areas from an excessive draining of their man-power and the resulting demoralisation of social, economic and tribal life. "

Family Groups or Compound System. The Commission records its opinion that, " in spite of certain grave dangers with which it is attended, the presence of the worker's wife at the mines under prevailing conditions in Northern Rhodesia and Katanga creates a sounder physical, social and moral environment and is productive of lesser evils in Native society than the compound system of employment of men unaccompanied by their families. "

Contact with Villages. " It is recommended that, in view of the grave problems of unemployment which may arise if Natives stabilised at the mines lose contact wholly with their villages, missions both in the rural areas and at the mines should endeavour to assist the workers to maintain communication and contact with their original homes. "

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[1] The recommendations are summarised in Chapter XXIII, p. 376.

Welfare Work. In this regard the Commission recommends that the mining companies should " place the welfare work for their Native employees upon as adequate a basis in organisation, equipment and leadership as any of the other departments of the industry." It points out " the need in each mine location of the services of a highly skilled welfare officer, equipped with training and experience in the science of social welfare, with facility in the use of a Native language, with experience in handling Natives and with a genuine interest in their welfare." Further, the Commission recommends the employment of a skilled woman welfare worker to deal with the special problems of social adjustment and hygiene arising from the presence of women and children at the mines.

Improvement of Rural Life. On this point the Commission makes a series of recommendations from which the following quotations may be made :

" . . . missions are urged to exert their influence in and shape their activities toward rural stabilisation and the strengthening of the economic foundations of Native society. . . .

" It is recommended that missions carefully consider the central place of agriculture in the life of the Native community and the various implications to be drawn therefrom. . . .

" . . . missions in co-operation with Government are urged to consider the problem of permanent community building—through rotation of crops, use of fertilisers, soil conservation, and the encouragement of better homes and permanent village improvements.

" So long as Government is not in a position to adequately undertake a comprehensive scheme for improving Native agriculture, missions are urged (*a*) to undertake agricultural experimentation and demonstration under their own trained leadership, but with as close as possible Government co-operation, (*b*) to encourage and demonstrate diversified farming, (*c*) to assist the growth of market centres for the sale of cash crops, (*d*) to teach and exemplify the importance of improved means of transport through good roads and wheeled vehicles, (*e*) to assist the organising of agricultural and industrial fairs, for the exhibition of produce, live-stock and handicrafts and the spread of new ideas and methods, (*f*) to demonstrate where needed the values of irrigation in relation to an all-year cultivation.

" Missions in co-operation with mines and Government should study the possibilities of supplementing the present training and experience of the Native employed on the copper belt in such a way as to increase his economic power on returning to rural life.

" The attention of missions is called to the need for technical instruction to emphasise the training of Natives to serve Native needs, through the study of the Natives' tastes and designs in tools, implements and furniture, together with the adaptation of such designs directed to their improvement and a more adequate meeting of Native requirements."

Co-operation. " The importance of the co-operative movement is urged as embodying a principle natural to the instincts and social organisation of the Native and as providing a medium for strengthening his economic solidarity and of adjusting his ideas and values to the changing order of society."

STATISTICS

Movements in the General Level of Unemployment and Employment

The following tables give current statistics on the general movement of unemployment (table I) and employment (table II). Notes on the sources, scope, and methods of compilation of these statistics for each country were given in the *Review* for January 1934 and additional notes in following numbers. Figures showing the movements in different industries and occupations will be found in the *I.L.O. Year-Book* for 1933. Yearly figures (averages for twelve months) are given for the period from 1927 onwards and are in some cases computed by the Office. Unless otherwise indicated the monthly figures refer to the end of each month. The sign * signifies: " no figures exist "; the sign —: " figures not yet received "; the sign † : " provisional figure ". The countries are in most cases arranged in French alphabetical order.

Notes are given below on the German unemployment statistics based on returns from the Labour Front, and on a new series of employment indexes for the Netherlands.

I. Unemployment.

Table I gives statistics for 34 countries. Owing to differences in the methods of compilation and in the definition of unemployment, comparisons between the figures are not generally possible. If not otherwise stated, the figures relate to persons recorded as *wholly* unemployed, and in most cases fall far short of the reality. Only when based on compulsory insurance or some other compulsory scheme do they approach completeness. Their principal value is in indicating the fluctuations from time to time, and only between such movements are international comparisons possible; the various series are not equally sensitive to changes on the labour market and an equal change in any two series does not necessarily represent a corresponding change in the countries concerned. Moreover, changes in legislation, in administrative practices, in the frequency of registration of the unemployed, in the amount of " short time " worked, and in " normal " hours often result in a decrease (or increase) in the recorded level of unemployment which does not correspond to changes in employment. Percentages are, however, more reliable than absolute numbers as measures of changes in the level of unemployment. Where available, figures of " partial unemployment " are also given, but they are uncertain, incomplete, and based on different definitions; thus here too international comparisons are not possible.

The principal problems of these statistics are examined in other publications of the Office [1]; for figures based on unemployment

[1] *Methods of Statistics of Unemployment*; Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 7; Geneva, 1925. *Report on the Proceedings of the Second International Conference of Labour Statisticians* (containing resolutions on the best methods of compiling unemployment statistics); Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 8; Geneva, 1925.

insurance additional information as to the scope and working of these schemes will be found in a recent study of the Office. [1]

II. Employment.

Table II gives statistics for 17 countries. In most cases they are based on returns from employers and indicate the *changes* in the number of employed workers in a selected number of mainly industrial establishments. The indexes are representative in character and for a variety of reasons they are valuable mainly for short-period comparisons ; they do not, of course, give any information on the absolute extent of employment in any country at any one given date. In a few cases, however, the indexes are based on returns of employed members in compulsory sickness or unemployment insurance schemes and they then cover the great majority of the working population. These statistics give a fairly reliable picture of fluctuations in the absolute extent of employment. In order to facilitate international comparison the indexes have as far as possible been recalculated by the Office on 1929 as common base (= 100). The original base year is given in parentheses in the headings of the table.

Germany : *Arbeit und Arbeitslosigkeit* (Anzeiger der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung).

I. Unemployment.

As pointed out in the notes on method given in the *Review* for January 1934, the old series of German trade union returns was discontinued in June 1933, and a new series based on returns from the German Labour Front began in August of the same year. Some indications of the methods of compilation are now available and are summarised below.

The statistics are based on returns from the nineteen federal trade associations *(Reichbetriebsgruppen)* constituting the Labour Front, and their scope has gradually been extended to cover workers in practically all industries and occupations, including agriculture, mining, building, and communications. The new series at present covers nearly 7 million workers. In order to assure comparability between the old and the new series, the latter are as far as possible compiled according to the same methods as the former. It is pointed out, however, that because of the enlarged scope of the new statistics they are not strictly comparable with the earlier figures, and also that the comparability between the figures for different months in the new series is affected by the same circumstance. The series relating to partial unemployment has been suppressed and statistics relating to hours worked are now compiled. It is intended to add these figures in an early issue of the *Review*.

Netherlands : *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek* (Central Bureau of Statistics).

II. Employment.

Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. The series introduced in this number is based on the unemployment insurance statistics (for notes on methods of compilation cf. *International Labour Review*, Jan. 1934, p. 132), and is obtained in the following manner. The Dutch authorities calculate an " index of unemployment " representing the number of days lost by unemployment as a percentage of the number of days which could have been worked if there had been no unemployment. The " normal " working week is generally assumed to consist of six working days or 48 hours, but in seasonal industries another number is sometimes accepted. " Short time " as well as " overtime " is taken into account but not time lost through industrial disputes. The monthly figures are averages of 4 or 5 weeks. The International Labour Office substracts these figures from 100 and converts the resulting figures into index numbers with the twelve-month average for 1929 as base = 100.

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[1] *Unemployment Insurance and Various Forms of Relief for the Unemployed.* International Labour Conference, Seventeenth Session, Geneva, 1933.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Germany				Australia		Austria		
	Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics		Trade union returns		Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics
	Percentage unemployed		Unemployed registered		Unemployed		Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered
	Wholly	Partially	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	
1927	8.7	3.4	1,353,000 [2]	*	31,032	7.0	172,450	*	200,112
1928	8.6	5.7	1,353,000 [2]	*	45,669	10.8	156,185	12.3	182,444
1929	13.2	7.5	1,915,025	*	47,359	11.1	164,509	12.8	192,062
1930	22.2	13.4	3,139,455	*	84,767	19.5	208,389	16.2	242,612
1931	34.3	20.0	4,573,218	23.7	117,866	27.4	253,368	20.7	300,223
1932	43.8	22.6	5,579,858	30.1	120,454	29.0	309,968	27.2	377,894
1933	*	*	4,733,014	25.8	104,035	25.1	328,844	31.1	405,741
1933 March	52.7 [1]	22.2 [1]	5,598,855	30.5	*	*	379,693	35.9	455,538
April	46.3	22.6	5,331,252	28.8	*	*	350,552	33.1	423,305
May	44.7	21.6	5,038,640	26.9	106,652	25.7	320,955	30.3	391,844
June	40.3	21.1	4,856,942	25.9	*	*	307,873	29.1	380,785
July	34.0	18.5	4,463,841 [4]	24.1 [4]	*	*	300,762	28.4	375,262
Aug.	26.3 [3]	17.1 [3]	4,124,288	22.3	104,560	25.1	291,224	27.5	365,985
Sept.	22.3	11.5	3,849,222	21.0	*	*	279,053	26.4	354,899
Oct.	20.9	14.0	3,744,860	20.4	*	*	280,381	26.5	357,628
Nov.	20.3	13.4	3,714,646	20.3	95,745	23.0	300,477	28.4	383,293
Dec.	24.7	9.4	4,059,055	22.6	*	*	335,919	31.7	422,258
1934 Jan.	22.6	*	3,772,792	20.4 †	*	*	357,291	33.8	440,345
Feb.	20.1	*	3,372,611	18.2 †	91,300†	21.9†	352,451	33.3	434,679
March	16.3	*	2,798,324	15.1 †	*	*	325,657	30.8†	—
April	—	*	—	—	*	*	295,750†	27.9†	—
Base figure	6,755,815		18,507,710 †		416,560†		1,058,440		*

[1] Incomplete figures. [2] New series; returns from the German Labour Front. [3] Figures calculated by the *Institut für Konjunkturforschung*. [4] Not including persons employed in labour camps.

Date	Belgium				Bulgaria	Canada			Chile
	Unemployment insurance statistics				Official estimates	Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed					Unemployed			
	Wholly		Partially		Number unemployed	Number	Per cent.	Applicants for work registered	Applicants for work registered
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.					
1927	11,112	1.8	23,763	3.9	*	8,142	4.9	13,541	*
1928	5,386	0.9	22,293	3.5	*	8,120	4.5	12,758	*
1929	8,462	1.3	18,831	3.0	*	11,488	5.7	14,966	*
1930	23,250	3.6	50,918	7.9	*	22,873	11.1	33,008	*
1931	79,186	10.9	121,890	16.9	*	33,625	16.8	71,385	29,345
1932	161,468	19.0	175,259	20.7	22,063	38,777	22.0	75,140	107,295
1933	167,189	17.0	170,023	17.2	25,334	33,488	22.3	81,809	71,805
1933 March	195,715	20.1	186,942	19.2	28,067	38,002	25.1	79,964	74,770
April	180,143	18.2	187,222	18.8	23,288	37,659	24.5	80,235	74,852
May	162,781	16.4	176,174	17.7	29,356	35,201	23.8	77,306	66,865
June	145,881	14.4	158,005	15.5	29,138	32,756	21.8	73,687	66,022
July	142,119	13.7	168,653	16.3	18,313	32,131	21.2	73,003	59,976
Aug.	135,105	13.5	162,361	16.3	17,710	30,096	19.9	74,868	58,510
Sept.	138,131	13.8	163,067	16.1	18,865	29,492	19.8	83,804	64,093
Oct.	146,988	14.5	144,998	14.4	20,477	29,417	19.8	94,425	67,477
Nov.	156,690	15.8	148,023	14.8	27,930	29,908	20.4	94,352	68,978
Dec.	194,279	19.9	163,537	16.6	34,499	30,799	21.0	90,333	65,269
1934 Jan.	206,855†	21.5†	183,712†	18.9†	43,505	31,695	21.2	97,324	51,502
Feb.	—	—	—	—	42,029	29,568	20.0	91,011	46,775
March	—	—	—	—	—	28,300†	19.5	88,452	—
April	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Base figure	962,890†				*	145,000		*	*

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Date	[1]Danzig (Free City of)	Denmark			Spain [1]		Estonia [1]	United States			
	Employment exchange statistics	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns [2] Percentage unemployed			Estimates (American Federation of Labour)
		Unemployed			Unemployed			Weighted	Unweighted		
	Unemployed registered	Number	Per cent.	Applicants for work registered	Wholly	Partially	Unemployed registered		Wholly	Partially	Number [4] unemployed
1927	*	61,705	22.5	65,620	*	*	2,957	*	*	*	*
1928	*	50,226	18.5	51,864	*	*	2,629	9.2	13	*	*
1929	12,905	42,817	15.5	44,581	*	*	3,181	8.2	12	*	*
1930	18,291	39,631	13.7	40,551	*	*	3,089	14.5	21	*	3,947,000
1931	24,898	53,019	18.0	59,430	*	*	3,542	19.1	26	19	7,431,000
1932	33,244	99,508	31.7	126,039	*	*	7,121	23.8	32	21	11,489,000
1933	31,408	97,417	28.9	121,115	*	*	8,207	24.3	31	21	11,904,000
1933 March	38,313	116,762	35.4	166,376	*	*	14,512	26.6	34	22	13,689,000
April	36,205	95,619	28.6	139,781	*	*	10,760	26.1	33	21	13,256,000
May	33,372	81,535	24.3	100,547	*	*	4,858	25.8	33	20	12,896,000
June	29,622	73,542	21.9	87,644	285,898	258,939	2,822	24.5	31	21	12,204,000
July	28,714	73,338	21.7	86,394	348,389	239,785	1,580	24.1	31	21	11,793,000
Aug.	26,400	72,559	21.4	85,222	380,121	239,580	2,046	23.7	31	20	10,960,000
Sept.	25,219	72,017	20.9	84,205	348,163	237,942	3,881	22.5	29	20	10,108,000
Oct.	24,628	80,565	23.2	88,957	355,828	248,167	6,491	21.7	27	21	10,122,000
Nov.	25,486	89,948	25.7	99,607	351,804	267,143	10,375	22.0	28	22	10,651,000
Dec.	28,368	131,930	37.5	137,559	381,199	243,898	9,215	22.8	29	22	10,769,000
1934 Jan.	27,525	122,620	34.4	134,567	378,157	230,588	7,720	22.6	28	23	11,774,000
Feb.	25,718	112,277	31.3	126,766	—	—	6,149	22.0	26	22	11,467,000
March	21,907	102,300†	28.4	113,650	416,360 [3]	250,268 [3]	6,005†	21.3	25	22	10,905,000†
April	20,332	82,312†	22.8†	—	—	—	—	20.8†	25†	23	—
Base figure	*	360,294		*	*	*	*	620,000			*

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [2] End of month. [3] Unemployed occupied on public and civil works excluded. [4] Including those employed on public works, etc.

Date	Finland		France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland			
	Employment exchange statistics	Statistics of local unemployment commissions	Public relief fund statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics			
					Wholly unemployed (including casuals)		Unemployed owing to temporary stoppages	
	Unemployed registered	Unemployed	Unemployed in receipt of relief	Applications for work	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1927	1,868	*	33,549	47,289	899,093	7.4	263,077	2.3
1928	1,735	*	4,834	15,275	980,326	8.2	309,903	2.6
1929	3,906	*	928	10,052	994,091	8.2	268,400	2.2
1930	7,993	*	2,514	13,859	1,467,347	11.8	526,604	4.3
1931	11,522	*	56,112	75,215	2,129,359	16.7	587,494	4.6
1932	17,581	64,441	273,412 [1]	308,086	2,272,590	17.6	573,805	4.5
1933	17,139	44,656	275,395	307,179	2,110,090	16.4	456,678	3.6
1933 March	19,083	64,300	314,190	350,246	2,310,062	18.0	511,309	3.9
April	17,732	53,386	309,576	345,393	2,200,397	17.1	536,882	4.2
May	13,082	42,402	276,597	307,725	2,128,614	16.5	497,705	3.9
June	11,479	27,384	252,275	281,579	2,029,185	15.8	468,868	3.6
July	13,437	19,660	239,692	269,872	2,000,923	15.5	506,850	4.0
Aug.	15,269	22,646	234,087	263,602	1,970,379	15.3	488,365	3.8
Sept.	17,134	31,306	226,634	251,951	1,976,870	15.3	398,214	3.1
Oct.	17,752	42,151	232,880	261,486	1,973,120	15.3	361,434	2.8
Nov.	19,729	45,362	257,836	286,882	1,965,138	15.3	343,641	2.6
Dec.	17,062	41,026	312,894	344,899	1,949,477	15.1	313,419	2.5
1934 Jan.	20,109	43,172	332,266	367,212	2,045,636	15.9	361,479	2.8
Feb.	17,510	42,913	350,930	383,901	1,996,344	15.5	346,450	2.7
March	14,026	39,723	345,783	379,371	1,907,908	14.8	316,960	2.5
April	—	—	334,519†	369,100†	1,818,282† [2]	—	329,913† [2]	—
Base figure	*	*	*	*	12,883,000			

[1] From 1932 onwards, including unemployed in receipt of relief from the public charitable offices.
[2] Number of persons registered at employment exchanges in Great Britain.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Date	Hungary	Dutch East Indies	Irish Free State[1]		Italy		Japan	
	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Social insurance fund statistics		Official estimates	
	Applications for work registered	Applicants for work registered	Applicants for work registered		Unemployed		Unemployed	
			With claims to unemployment benefit	Total	Wholly	Partially	Number	Per cent.
1927	13,881	*	*	21,100	278,484	97,054	*	*
1928	14,715	*	*	22,721	324,422	38,457	*	*
1929	15,173	*	*	20,860	300,787	16,154	*	*
1930	43,592	*	*	22,176	425,437	23,408	366,799	5.2
1931	52,305	6,964	17,852	25,230	734,454	28,721	413,248	5.9
1932	66,235	10,922	20,217	62,817	1,006,442	33,468	489,168	6.9
1933	60,595	—	19,897	72,255	1,018,955	—	—	—
1933 March	69,207	14,177	22,916	82,503	1,081,536	29,129	424,287	5.8
April	65,793	14,031	19,016	70,039	1,025,754	51,871	414,392	5.7
May	61,037	14,479	17,220	65,296	1,000,128	45,183	429,295	5.9
June	54,026	14,519	16,660	60,578	883,621	38,815	428,708	5.9
July	52,351	14,766	16,114	56,230	824,195[2]	229,217[2]	418,177	5.8
Aug.	52,569	15,253	16,001	55,590	888,560	259,640	413,649	5.7
Sept.	50,978	15,571	16,768	58,937	907,463	*	400,118	5.5
Oct.	56,671	15,795	20,424	71,586	962,868	*	392,294	5.4†
Nov.	60,929	—	20,194	82,565	1,066,215	*	383,582†	5.2†
Dec.	55,523	—	21,240	79,414	1,132,257	*	—	—
1934 Jan.	56,478	—	23,418	94,266	1,158,418	*	—	—
Feb.	57,882	—	22,504	98,642	1,103,550	*	—	—
March	—	—	22,037	100,521	1,056,823	*	—	—
April	—	—	20,030†	98,144†	—	*	—	—
Base figure	*	*	*		*		7,397,877†	

[1] The figures relate to the first Monday of the month from 1927 to 1930, and afterwards to the end of the month. [2] Employment exchange statistics.

Date	Latvia	Mexico	Norway			New Zealand		Palestine	Portugal
	Employment exchange statistics	Official estimates	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Official estimates	Employment exchange statistics
	Applications for work registered	Number unemployed	Unemployed		Unemployed[3]	Applicants for work registered[3]	Employed on public relief works	Number unemployed	Unemployed registered
			Number	Per cent.					
1927	3,131	*	8,561	25.4	23,889	*	*	*	*
1928	4,700	*	6,502	19.2	21,759	*	*	*	*
1929	5,617	*	5,902	15.4	19,089	2,895	*	3,104	*
1930	4,851	75,689[1]	7,175	16.6	19,353	5,003	*	4,833	*
1931	8,709	257,722	*	22.3	27,479	41,430[4]	*	24,083	*
1932	14,587	336,552	14,790	30.8	33,831	51,549	40,173	18,239	33,352
1933	8,156	—	16,588	33.4	36,279	53,382	48,456	18,370	25,255
1933 March	13,087	307,687	18,992	38.5	42,437	51,035	45,393	18,000	28,223
April	10,377	303,852	17,678	35.7	39,846	53,171	47,719	17,100	28,785
May	5,993	293,211	15,335	30.9	35,803	55,477	49,531	15,250	28,552
June	3,769	257,923	13,532	27.2	30,394	56,563	50,858	18,600	27,940
July	3,690	243,177	12,995	26.0	25,918	57,169	52,122	21,800	21,426
Aug.	3,930	253,726	14,204	28.4	27,459	56,750	52,309	21,250	21,622
Sept.	3,140	—	15,431	30.9	32,848	56,173	51,872	19,000	21,801
Oct.	4,404	—	15,682	31.3	35,223	54,105	50,494	18,000	22,135
Nov.	10,209	—	16,720	33.4	39,723	50,140	46,745	17,600	23,392
Dec.	10,605	—	19,570	39.2	42,595	48,334	44,881	17,150	24,210
1934 Jan.	10,435	—	20,349	40.6	41,831	42,292	42,292	16,400	26,704
Feb.	10,041†	—	—	—	43,559	45,125	40,844	15,040	27,986
March	10,480†	—	—	—	42,000	—	—	13,700	—
April	—	—	—	—	40,439	—	—	—	—
Base figure	*	*	50,083		*	*	*	*	*

[1] Figure for the month of May according to the population census. [2] The figures relate to the 15th of the month. [3] Including persons employed on public relief works. [4] Modified series.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Date	Netherlands			Poland		Rumania	Sweden		
	Unemployment insurance statistics[1]		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed		Unemployed registered	Applications for work registered		Unemployed registered	Unemployed		Applicants for work registered
	Number	Per cent.		Number	Per cent.		Number	Per cent.	
1927	26,868	9.0	*	165,340	7.4	*	31,076	12.0	25,476
1928	22,009	6.9	*	125,552[2]	5.0[2]	10,373	29,716	10.6	24,399
1929	27,775	7.5	*	129,450	4.9	7,288	32,621[3]	10.7[3]	21,770
1930	41,281	9.7	*	226,659	8.9	23,686	42,016	12.2	25,156
1931	96,751	18.7	138,200	299,502	12.7	35,737	64,815	17.2	40,938
1932	161,565	29.9	271,092	255,582	11.9	38,890	89,922	22.8	82,235
1933	176,429	31.4	322,951	249,660	11.8	29,063	97,316	23.7	125,881
1933 March	184,776	30.0	342,152	279,779	13.2	44,294	121,456	29.0	149,045
April	163,112	26.5	312,752	258,599	12.2	37,532	110,055	24.8	136,580
May	149,320	28.7	292,705	239,542	11.3	30,336	93,360	21.5	116,843
June	144,105	27.7	275,471	224,566	10.6	24,685	89,485	20.8	103,857
July	146,513	27.7	280,237	215,017	10.1	21,084	83,771	19.8	102,208
Aug.	152,486	29.0	274,859	206,471	9.7	20,153	76,686	20.0	108,769
Sept.	149,976	28.6	287,827	202,065	9.5	17,551	77,013	19.7	119,020
Oct.	151,613	29.1	302,014	215,415	10.1	17,031	79,678	20.6	132,902
Nov.	151,021	29.6	329,083	265,197	12.5	20,125	88,100	22.7	137,557
Dec.	237,109	40.0	394,135	342,622	16.1	25,765	109,778	27.7	130,518
1934 Jan.	240,748	40.1	387,230†	399,660	18.8	28,323	89,328	24.3	142,875
Feb.	186,940†	31.5†	358,023†	408,792	19.2	27,721	99,006†	24.1†	138,426
March	171,468†	28.9†	—	388,297†	18.3	—	—	—	132,761
April	160,550†	27.2†	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Base figure	589,246†		*	2,125,000†		*	411,416		*

[1] Monthly averages based on weekly figures.
[2] Up to 1927, last week of the month; afterwards, monthly averages.
[3] From 1929 onwards, including forestry workers and timber floaters.

Date	Saar Territory	Switzerland		Switzerland	Czechoslovakia		Czechoslovakia	Yugoslavia
	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed registered	Percentage unemployed		Applications for work	Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered
		Wholly	Partially		Number	Per cent.		
1927	*	2.7	2.0	11,824	17,617	1.6	52,869	*
1928	*	2.1	1.1	8,380	16,348	1.4	38,636	5,721
1929	6,591	1.8	1.7	8,131	23,763	2.2	41,630	8,370
1930	9,286	3.4[1]	7.2[1]	12,881	51,371	4.5	105,442	8,198
1931	20,963	5.9	12.1	24,208	102,179	8.3	291,332	9,930
1932	41,373	9.1	12.2	54,366	184,555	13.5	554,059	14,761
1933	38,749	10.8	8.5	67,867	247,613	16.9	738,267	15,997
1933 March	42,258	12.1	10.7	71,809	295,297	20.2	877,955	22,609
April	40,082	9.8	9.6	60,894	264,530	17.9	795,919	19,671
May	37,341	8.7	8.9	57,163	247,687	16.6	726,629	15,115
June	36,492	8.3	8.1	53,860	236,007	15.8	675,933	14,492
July	35,053	7.8	7.5	50,864	226,843	15.1	640,360	11,710
Aug.	34,840	7.8	7.6	50,207	224,375	15.0	625,836	9,841
Sept.	35,287	7.6	6.9	49,140	210,426	14.1	622,561	10,043
Oct.	35,836	8.4	6.3	56,399	213,753	14.3	629,992	10,419
Nov.	37,096	10.1	6.6	71,721	210,771	15.3	691,078	11,409
Dec.	39,900	16.0	7.2	94,967	236,423	17.1	779,987	17,733
1934 Jan.	40,719	16.0	7.7	99,147	268,708	19.4	838,982	27,768
Feb.	39,749	14.0	7.6	91,233	294,184†	20.9†	844,284	24,254
March	—	—	—	70,109	—	—	789,789	21,077
April	—	—	—	—	—	—	703,495†	—
Base figure	*	458,351		*	1,409,706†		*	*

[1] Up to 1929, quarterly statistics; afterwards, monthly statistics.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT [1]

Date	Germany					Canada [4]	Estonia
	Sickness insurance statistics		Employers' returns		Trade union returns	Employers' returns	Employers' returns
	Number employed	Index (1 Jan. 1925)	Employment as percentage of possible number of: workers	hours of work	Percentage of full-time employment	Index (1926)	Index (1 Jan. 1927)
1927	*	*	*	*	90.4	88.1	93.0
1928	17,996,000	101.3	74.5 [2]	70.5 [2]	90.4	94.2	98.2
1929	17,870,000	100.0	70.4	67.4	85.2	100.0	100.0
1930	16,515,000	94.4	61.2	56.2	74.5	94.5	95.8
1931	14,420,000	85.6	50.7	44.5	61.2	85.3	88.1
1932	12,518,000	62.5	41.9	35.7	50.5	72.5	82.7
1933	13,069,941	*	46.3	41.0	*	70.6	84.3
1933 Feb.	11,532,788	58.8	40.3	34.0	46.9	64.5	80.7
March	12,192,696	62.4	42.1	36.0	*	63.8	82.8
April	12,697,620	65.2	43.8	38.7	48.6 [3]	65.1	84.5
May	13,179,941	67.9	45.5	41.7	50.5 [3]	67.7	90.4
June	13,306,896	69.0	46.5	41.7	*	70.9	89.0
July	13,435,581	69.2	47.3	41.5	*	73.1	85.2
Aug.	13,715,795	*	48.3	42.7	*	74.2	83.8
Sept.	13,920,977	*	49.7	44.3	*	75.8	84.3
Oct.	14,062,337	*	50.7	45.6	*	76.6	84.7
Nov.	14,020,204	*	51.2	46.6	*	77.0	84.8
Dec.	13,287,238	*	49.7	45.4	*	74.3	82.8
1934 Jan.	13,517,998	*	49.8	44.4	*	76.7	87.3
Feb.	—	*	54.4	46.5	*	77.8	91.3
March	—	*	—	—	*	76.6	94.6†
Number employed	*	*	*	*	1,311,457 [3]	847,993†	34,150†

Date	United States [5]		Finland	France		Great Britain	
	Employers' returns (Federal Reserve Board)		Employers' returns	Returns of labour inspectors		Unemployment insurance statistics	
	Index (1923-1925)		Number employed in same month of 1926 = 100	Number employed in same month of 1930 = 100	Percentage of workers employed on short time	Number employed	Index (1924)
	Employed	Factory payrolls					
1927	97.7	94.7	*	*	*	10,018,000	98.0
1928	96.1	94.5	*	*	*	10,023,000	98.0
1929	100.0	100.0	*	*	*	10,223,000	100.0
1930	86.8	81.2	*	100.0	3.8	9,809,000	96.0
1931	73.6	61.3	*	92.5	32.5	9,437,000	92.3
1932	61.7	42.1	*	80.7	48.6	9,367,000	91.7
1933	65.5	44.1	*	79.1	38.2	9,683,000	94.8
1933 Feb.	58.8	37.1	*	77.9	41.4	9,318,000	91.2
March	56.1	34.3	*	78.3	40.2	9,415,000	92.1
April	57.1	35.8	83	78.7	39.8	9,505,000	93.0
May	59.9	39.0	*	78.9	39.5	9,619,000	94.1
June	64.1	42.9	*	79.1	37.8	9,749,000	95.4
July	69.3	46.3	91	80.9	36.7	9,745,000	95.3
Aug.	72.5	51.7	*	80.1	36.6	9,796,000	95.9
Sept.	73.5	53.5	*	79.5	36.0	9,883,000	96.7
Oct.	73.1	53.3	82	78.5	37.1	9,927,000	97.1
Nov.	71.6	49.8	*	79.9	36.2	9,957,000	97.5
Dec.	71.0	49.3	*	79.5	35.9	10,009,000	97.9
1934 Jan.	71.0	49.1	94	77.7	38.4	9,875,000	96.6
Feb.	73.9	55.0	*	77.3	40.3	9,942,000	97.3
March	76.1	58.8	*	77.0	40.8	10,062,000	98.5
Number employed	3,273,694		49,861†	2,364,462†		*	

[1] The indexes have, wherever possible, been recalculated on the basis of 1929 = 100. The figures in parentheses give the original base years. [2] Figure for July. [3] Incomplete figure.
[4] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [5] The figures relate to the 15th of the month.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT [1] (*cont.*)

Date	Hungary		Italy		Japan	Latvia		Netherlands
	Social insurance statistics		Employers' returns		Employers' returns	Sickness insurance statistics		Unemployment insurance statistics
	Number employed	Index (1927)	Index (1926)	Percentage of workers employed on short time	Index (1926)	Number employed	Index (1930)	Index (1929)
1927	1,033,609	98.3	*	*	104.1	148,288	87.4	98.3
1928	1,064,599	101.3	*	*	99.1	161,483	94.7	100.3
1929	1,051,169	100.0	100.0	8.9	100.0	171,195	100.0	100.0
1930	990,776	94.3	93.0	20.8	90.0	179,636	105.3	98.0
1931	937,298	89.2	81.2	24.2	81.7	168,208	98.9	90.6
1932	862,469	82.0	70.5	28.4	82.0	141,296	83.2	79.4
1933	853,203	81.1	71.4	20.8	89.9	150,236	87.9	77.8
1933 Feb.	825,671	78.5	69.3	24.4	86.2	141,097	83.2	72.6
March	834,488	79.4	71.2	23.0	87.3	144,254	84.2	77.4
April	846,024	80.5	72.0	21.5	89.0	144,351	84.2	80.6
May	871,212	82.9	72.0	20.0	89.5	150,689	88.4	79.8
June	851,811	81.0	69.2	20.0	89.6	152,093	89.5	81.1
July	841,739	80.0	72.9	18.6	90.0	153,507	89.5	81.0
Aug.	851,009	80.9	72.4	18.2	90.3	153,078	89.5	80.3
Sept.	870,371	82.8	73.6	19.1	91.7	153,561	89.5	80.3
Oct.	891,265	84.8	73.3	19.3	92.5	157,156	91.6	80.1
Nov.	893,476	85.0	72.2	19.9	93.5	158,805	92.6	79.0
Dec.	836,046	79.5	71.1	21.1	94.2	153,848	90.5	72.4
1934 Jan.	849,568	80.8	69.8	23.4	89.9	152,030†	89.5	72.9
Feb.	—	—	70.5	23.9	—	155,226†	90.5	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number employed	*	*	665,685		805,311	*	*	600,661 [2]

Date	Poland	Sweden		Switzerland	Czechoslovakia [3]		Union of South Africa	
	Employers' returns	Employers' returns		Employers' returns	Social insurance statistics		Employers' returns	
		Social Board	Federation of Industries		Number employed	Index (1928)	Index (July 1925)	
	Index (1928)	Index (1926-1930)	Index (1925-1930)	Index (1925)			Europeans	Total [4]
1927	*	*	94.2	91.2	2,618,516	*	94.2	95.9
1928	99.7	*	98.1	97.3	2,487,640	99.3	97.2	98.2
1929	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	2,506,190	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	86.8	*	100.0	96.5	2,446,197	97.6	97.4	98.1
1931	73.9	*	91.3	88.5	2,312,596	92.3	93.5	93.8
1932	63.3	*	85.6	76.1	2,069,014	82.6	87.6	87.2
1933	62.9	89.1	84.9	73.0	1,886,580	75.3	90.3	91.2
1933 Feb.	57.4	*	85.6	*	1,666,724	66.5	87.2	88.0
March	59.5	86.0	83.7	72.5	1,718,406	68.6	88.2	88.3
April	60.8	*	81.7	*	1,868,580	74.6	88.5	88.6
May	63.4	*	82.7	*	1,984,931	79.2	89.1	89.7
June	63.9	89.6	83.7	73.1	2,034,956	81.2	89.9	90.8
July	64.2	*	84.6	*	2,018,054	80.5	90.7	91.7
Aug.	65.0	*	84.6	*	2,024,122	80.8	91.1	92.6
Sept.	66.2	91.0	85.6	74.0	1,999,812	79.8	92.0	93.3
Oct.	70.6	*	85.6	*	2,007,156	80.1	92.9	94.0
Nov.	66.9	*	87.5	*	1,920,070	76.8	93.8	94.9
Dec.	61.3	89.7	88.5	72.3	1,734,626	69.2	94.4	96.0
1934 Jan.	61.4	*	87.5	*	1,588,901	63.5	—	—
Feb.	63.3	*	—	*	1,620,776	64.7	—	—
March	65.0†	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number employed	548,976†	197,407	*	190,266	*	*	*	*

[1] The indexes have, wherever possible, been recalculated on the basis of 1929 = 100. The figures in parentheses give the original base years. [2] Workers covered by the statistics, including unemployed. [3] Average for the month. [4] Including "Natives".

Index Numbers of the General Level of Wages

The purpose of the statistics given below is to show changes in the general level of wages within each country ; they are in continuation of the tables previously published here under the same title. [1]

Table I shows the index numbers of money wages [2], and table II the index numbers of real wages corresponding to the index numbers of money wages in table I (calculated by dividing them by the index number of the cost of living) for those countries which themselves publish series of this kind. In each table the countries are arranged in French alphabetical order. The index numbers have either been given on their original base or have been calculated by the International Labour Office on the basis of the absolute figures. In some cases the original index numbers have been recalculated so as to secure a certain uniformity in the base employed for different series of the same country. No attempt, however, has been made to arrive at a uniform base for all the index numbers.

The series have been chosen so as to give as comprehensive a view as possible of the movement of wages in all branches of economic activity in each country. When the general series do not include certain important branches, in particular agriculture, mining, and certain public services, they have been completed by series showing the general movement of wages in these branches. The figures available for agriculture in certain countries have been reproduced separately, even when they are included in the general series. The index numbers relate to money wages, except in the case of agriculture, where account has been taken, wherever possible, of the value of allowances in kind.

The various series differ considerably in the nature and scope of the data, as well as in the dates to which they relate, in distinctions of sex, age, and degree of skill of the workers, and in the methods of calculating the averages. International comparisons, therefore, can only be approximate. Some of these divergences are briefly indicated in the headings and notes to the tables.

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIX, No. 2, Feb. 1934, pp. 256-268.

[2] For the figures of actual wages on which these index numbers are based and for wages in the different industries, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVIII, Nos. 3 and 4, Sept.-Oct. 1933, pp. 412-435 and 564-583, and the *I.L.O. Year-Book*, 1933, Appendix II (Labour Statistics), Table II.

As regards the nature of the data, the following kinds of statistics may be distinguished :

(1) *Rates :* rates fixed in collective agreements or by decision of arbitration or other courts, or as laid down by employers, or merely recognised as in accordance with custom ; unless otherwise indicated, they are regarded as typical or standard rates. As a rule, they apply only to time workers and to normal hours of work.

(2) *Minimum rates :* rates fixed as a minimum for time workers and normal hours of work, but frequently exceeded in practice by the rates in force in the different undertakings.

(3) *Earnings :* average wages actually paid, including various bonuses and allowances, and usually based on payrolls. They apply to time workers and piece workers and are averages based on hours actually worked, whether normal hours, short time, or overtime.

(4) *Wages :* data of a less exact or indeterminate character, or including the estimated value of important payments in kind.

The scope of the statistics is indicated by the main economic groups that are covered, more or less completely, by the series ; these groups are as follows [1] :

(1) Agriculture, including forestry and cattle rearing ;

(2) Mines, including quarries and oil wells ;

(3) Industries, including all manufacturing industries, as well as building and constructional work ;

(4) Public services, including transport of every kind, supply of water, light, and power, postal, telegraph, and telephone services, and public administration ;

(5) Commerce, including banks, insurance, hotels and restaurants ;

(6) " Various ", covering certain occupations which are either ill-defined or too special or limited to be assigned to one of the important groups.

The composition of these groups, however, varies widely from country to country, especially in the case of " public services " and " commerce ", which have often a very narrow scope. For agriculture, also, the series sometimes relates to only a single occupation, that occupation, however, being considered representative.

Fuller information as to the sources and methods of compilation of each of the series contained in tables I and II was given in the *Review* for August 1933 and February 1934. [2] Notes indicating the methods of compilation of the new series for Austria, Lithuania, and Czechoslovakia are given at the end of the tables.

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[1] Reference to the scheme of classification of industries adopted for the purpose of giving detailed information for certain industries or occupations in various kinds of social statistics, especially those of wages (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVIII, Nos. 3 and 4, Sept.-Oct. 1933 : " Movements of Wages in Different Industries and Occupations in Certain Countries ", and *I.L.O. Year-Book*, 1933, Appendix II (Labour Statistics)), show that the six main groups in question cover the following items : Agriculture, A ; Mines, B ; Industries, C to L ; Public services, M to R ; Commerce, S and T ; Various, U to Y.

[2] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 2, Aug. 1933, pp. 225-237 and 248 ; Vol. XXIX, No. 2, Feb. 1934, p. 258.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES

Date	Germany					
	Mines °, industries, public services °					
	Men (skilled)	Men (semi-skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (sk. and semi-sk.)	Women (unskilled)	General average
	Hourly rates					
Pre-war	*	*	*	*	*	*
1927	*	*	*	*	*	92
1928	100	100	100	100	100	100
1929	105	106	106	105	106	105
1930	107	108	107	107	108	107
1931	102	102	102	102	102	102
1932	85	89	86	88	88	86
1933	82	88	83	86	87	84
1932 : Dec.	83	88	84	87	87	84
1933 : March	82	88	83	86	87	84
June	82	88	83	86	87	84
Sept.	82	88	83	86	87	84
Dec.	82	88	83	86	87	84

Date	Australia					
	Agriculture	Mines °, industries, public services °, commerce, various				Agriculture, mines, ind., pub. serv., comm., var.
	Men (with and without keep)	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Weekly rates (cash and kind)	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Weekly rates
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	191	191	177	211	193	181
1928	194	193	179	217	198	183
1929	194	194	180	218	199	183
1930	188	189	177	217	198	180
1931	167	173	161	195	180	163
1932	155	163	151	183	167	153
1932 : Sept.	153	159	148	178	163	150
Dec.	151	158	147	178	163	149
1933 : March	151	157	146	177	161	148
June	151	158	147	177	162	148
Sept.	151	157	146	176	161	148

Germany. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : 1st of the following month. Base : 1928 = 100. Before 1928, old series linked up with the new one.

Australia. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : last day of the month. Base : April 1914 = 100.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure " ; the sign ° : " branches relating to men only ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Austria	Belgium and Luxemburg	Canada				
	Mines	Mines, industries, pub. serv.	Agriculture		Mines, certain ind., pub. serv.	Other industries	Industries
	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (with keep)	Women (with keep)	Chiefly skilled men	Men and women (skilled and unsk.)	Men (unskilled)
	Earnings per shift	Hourly rates	Yearly wages (cash and kind)		Hourly rates		
Pre-war	*	*	100	100	100	100	100
1927	98	141	195	247	185	199	188
1928	96	152	196	252	187	201	187
1929	100	185	194	246	193	202	188
1930	104	182	173	216	194	202	188
1931	102	165	136	170	191	197	183
1932	101	153	106	135	179	184	174
1933	—	152†	100	130	173	176	168

Date	Denmark				
	Agriculture	Industries, public services °, commerce °, various			
	Men (without keep)	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled and unsk.)	General average
	Daily wages (cash)	Hourly earnings			
Pre-war	*	39	37	35	38
1927	104	101	100	101	101
1928	98	100	99	100	100
1929	100	100	100	100	100
1930	102	102	102	101	102
1931	96	101	102	101	102
1932	91	100	102	102	102
1933	94	100†	103†	102†	102†
1932 : Sept.	*	99	102	102	102
Dec.	*	101	104	102	103
1933 : March	*	99	102	102	101
June	*	99	102	102	102
Sept.	*	99	102	102	102
Dec.	*	101	104	102	104

Austria. Annual figures : averages. Base : 1929 = 100.

Belgium and Luxemburg. (Revised series.) Annual figures : December of each year, except for 1928 and 1933 (October). Base : December 1925 = 100.

Canada. Annual figures : averages. Base : 1913 = 100, except for agriculture (1914).

Denmark. Agriculture : annual figures : summer of each year. Industries, etc. : annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1914) ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Base : 1929 = 100.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure " ; the sign ° : " branches relating to men only ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Estonia			United States			
	Agriculture		Mines, ind., pub. serv., various	Agriculture		Mines	
	Men (with keep)	Women (with keep)	Men and women (skilled and unsk.)	Men (without keep)	Men (with and without keep)	Men (skilled)	
	Yearly wages (cash and kind)		Hourly earnings	Daily rates (cash)	Monthly rates (cash)	Hourly earnings	Fortnightly earnings
Pre-war	*	*	*	59	61	*	*
1927	92	86	91	100	102	97	113
1928	96	91	97	99	102	*	*
1929	100	100	100	99	102	81	92
1930	94	99	101	88	91	*	*
1931	76	79	99	67	70	71	62
1932	59	62	93	49	52	*	*
1933	53	56	91	48	48	47	42
1932 : Dec.	*	*	*	43	45	*	*
1933 : March	*	*	*	43	44	*	*
June	*	*	90	46	47	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	51	52	*	*
Dec.	*	*	92	49	49	*	*

Date	United States (*cont.*)							
	Industries (N.I.C.B. series)							
	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average	
	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings
Pre-war	47	49	46	48	41	45	46	48
1927	106	102	107	106	104	101	106	103
1928	106	104	107	107	103	99	107	105
1929	108	106	110	110	104	102	109	107
1930	107	95	108	98	103	93	109	97
1931	102	81	104	86	97	85	104	85
1932	90	63	91	65	85	68	92	64
1933	89†	66†	91†	67†	86†	72†	90†	66†
1932 : Dec.	85	60	86	61	80	67	86	62
1933 : March	84	54	85	55	77	58	85	55
June	83	69	83	71	78	71	84	70
Sept.	95	72	98	72	103	82	98	73
Dec.	98	69	102	68	105	78	101	70
1934 : March	99	74	105	76	109	85	104	77

Estonia. Annual figures : averages : monthly figures : average for the half-year ending with the month in question. Base : 1929 = 100.

United States. Agriculture : annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1914) ; monthly figures : 1st of the following month. Mines ; biennial figures : a fortnight in the fourth quarter of 1926 and a fortnight in the first quarter of 1929, 1931, and 1933 respectively. Industries : annual figures : averages (pre-war : July 1914) ; monthly figures : first week of the month. Base : 1923 = 100, except for mines (1924).

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	United States (*concluded*)				Finland		
	Public services (railways)		Certain industries, pub., services, various (trade union rates)		Agriculture		Mines, ind., pub. serv., various
	Men (skilled and unsk.)		Men (chiefly skilled)		Men (without keep)	Women (without keep)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Yearly wages (cash)		Yearly earnings
Pre-war	43	51	47	50	8	8	*
1927	105	103	123	121	99	97	96
1928	106	104	124	121	102	100	100
1929	109	107	124	121	100	100	100
1930	110	104	129	123	91	94	97
1931	111	99	130	122	79	83	85
1932	103	86	115	107	72	76	82
1933	—	—	110	102	—	—	—

Date	France								
	Agriculture		Mines	Industries, various					
				Paris		Towns other than Paris			
	Men (with keep)	Women (with keep)	Chiefly men (skilled and unsk.)	Men (chiefly skilled)				Women (chiefly skilled)	
	Yearly wages (cash and kind)		Daily earnings	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates
Pre-war	*	*	16	14	16	12	15	10	13
1927	*	*	92	84	84	86	87	80	81
1928	95	95	90	86	86	90	91	87	88
1929	*	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	105	105	108	109	109	107	107	107	108
1931	*	*	104	108	109	107	107	107	108
1932	103	103	96	104	102	104	104	104	104
1933	*	*	95	104	102	102	101	100	99

United States. Public services : annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1914-1915). Certain industries, etc.: annual figures : 15 May of each year (pre-war : 1913). Base : 1923 = 100.

Finland. Annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1914). Base : 1929 = 100.

France. Agriculture : biennial figures : annual averages. Mines : annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1913). Industries and various : annual figures : October of each year (pre-war : 1911). Base : 1929 = 100, except for agriculture (average 1928-1930).

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Great Britain and Northern Ireland		Hungary			Irish Free State
	Agriculture	Agric., mines, ind., pub. serv.	Agriculture		Industries, pub. serv.	Agriculture
	Men (unskilled)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (without keep)	Women (without keep)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (without keep)
	Minimum weekly rates (cash)	Weekly rates	Daily wages (cash)		Yearly earnings	Weekly wages (cash)
Pre-war	64	*	*	*	*	*
1927	113	101	*	*	93	97
1928	113	100	105	108	96	94
1929	113	99½	100	100	100	95
1930	113	99	90	90	94	93
1931	113	97½	72	74	88	92
1932	111	96	63	65	79	90
1933	109	94½	—	—	—	84
1933 : March	110	95	—	—	*	*
June	109	94½	—	—	*	*
Sept.	109	94½	—	—	*	*
Dec.	109	94½	—	—	*	*
1934 : March	109	94½	—	—	*	*

Date	Italy	Japan						
	Mines, ind., pub. serv., various	Mines	Industries					
	Men and women (skilled and unsk.)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (sk. and unsk.)	Women (sk. and unsk.)	General average	Men (sk. and unsk.)	Women (sk. and unsk.)	General average
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Daily rates			Daily earnings		
1927	*	105	100	99	100	101	99	102
1928	100	106	99	98	99	103	100	105
1929	102	106	99	97	99	103	96	104
1930	100	100	96	94	96	97	87	99
1931	91	90	92	88	91	92	77	91
1932	87	86	89	83	88	93	71	88
1933	85	—	86	80	85	95	68	89
1932 : Dec.	86	*	88	82	87	99	71	92
1933 : March	84	*	87	81	86	98	70	92
June	86	*	86	80	85	95	68	88
Sept.	85	*	86	79	85	94	68	89
Dec.	85	*	85	79	84	98	69	92

Great Britain. Agriculture: annual figures: September of each year; from 1932 onwards, averages (pre-war: 1914); monthly figures: last day of the month. General series: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Base: 1924 = 100.

Hungary. Annual figures: averages. Base: 1929 = 100.

Irish Free State. Annual figures: a week in July of each year. Base: 1925 = 100.

Italy. Annual and monthly figures: averages. Base: July 1928 to June 1929 = 100.

Japan. Mines: annual figures: averages. Industries: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: rates: end of the month; earnings: averages for the month. Base: 1926 = 100.

The sign * signifies: " no figures exist "; the sign —: " figures not yet received "; the sign †: " provisional figure ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Latvia						Lithuania	
	Agriculture		Industries, public services °, commerce (Riga)				Agriculture	
	Men (with keep)	Women (with keep)	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled)	Women (unskilled)	Men (with keep)	Women (with keep)
	Yearly wages (cash)		Hourly earnings				Yearly wages (cash and kind)	
Pre-war	64	54	*	*	*	*	*	*
1927	113	109	*	*	*	*	112	110
1928	109	108	102	95	96	97	112	110
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	98	99	104	104	98	100	102	103
1931	95	97	101	100	93	100	105	113
1932	63	67	89	88	87	94	91	98
1933	61	68	81	83	84	92	68	73
1932 : Dec.	*	*	85	86	82	94	*	*
1933 : March	*	*	81	89	82	91	*	*
June	*	*	81	84	84	94	*	*
Sept.	*	*	79	82	87	94	*	*
Dec.	*	*	81	82	84	94	*	*

Date	Norway			New Zealand			Netherlands
	Agriculture		Mines, industries	Agriculture	Agriculture °, mines °, ind., pub. serv. °, commerce, various		Mines, industries
	Men (without keep)	Women (without keep)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men (with keep)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Daily wages (cash)		Daily earnings	Weekly rates (cash and kind)	Minimum weekly rates		Hourly earnings
Pre-war	*	*	*	100	100	100	*
1927	110	112	105	156	160	158	98
1928	103	102	100	179	166	159	98
1929	100	100	100	179	166	159	102
1930	97	97	100	179	167	159	104
1931	89	89	95	156	154	150	102
1932	83	84	96	125	142	143	95
1933	—	—	—	115	137	138	—
1932 : Dec.	*	*	*	117	137	*	93
1933 : March	*	*	*	115	137	*	*
June	*	*	*	115	137	*	91
Sept.	*	*	*	115	137	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	115	137	*	—

Latvia. Agriculture : annual figures : averages (pre-war : 1913-1914). Industries, etc. : annual and monthly figures : averages. Base : 1929 = 100.

Lithuania. Annual figures : averages. Base : 1929=100.

Norway. Agriculture : annual figures : harvest season. Industries : annual figures : third quarter of each year, except for 1931 (fourth quarter). Base : 1929 = 100.

New Zealand. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Base : 1914 = 100.

Netherlands. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the half-year ending with the month in question. Base : 1926-1930 = 100.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † " provisional figure " ; the sign ° : " branches relating to men only ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Poland			Rumania		Saar Territory
	Agriculture	Mines, industries		Agriculture	Agric., mines, ind., pub. serv., comm., various	Mines
	Men (with keep)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled, without keep)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Yearly wages (cash and kind)	Daily rates	Hourly earnings	Monthly wages (cash)	Monthly earnings	Daily earnings
Pre-war	*	*	*	100	100	*
1927	100	100	*	3217	2714	93
1928	100	110	*	3125	2748	93
1929	69	118	*	3112	2764	100
1930	54	119	*	2914	2656	107
1931	61	111	*	2358	2356	102
1932	48	101	100	1560	1903	101
1933	—	93†	92	1481	1743	101
1932 : Dec.	*	98	95	1473	1803	101
1933 : March	*	95	93	1621	1781	102
June	*	95	93	1665	1765	101
Sept.	*	91	90	1362	1720	101
Dec.	*	92†	91	1360	1710	101

Date	Sweden							
	Agriculture		Mines °, industries, public services, commerce, various					
	Men (with and without keep)	Women (with and without keep)	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average (including young persons)	
	Yearly earnings (cash and kind)		Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	168	186	267	222	300	241	270	224
1928	168	186	271	224	304	244	273	226
1929	168	187	278	231	308	248	280	233
1930	165	185	287	241	313	254	290	243
1931	161	181	287	238	313	251	290	241
1932	155	174	282	234	308	250	285	237

Poland. Agriculture : annual figures : averages. Mines, industries : rates : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : end of the month. Base : 1927 = 100. Mines, industries : earnings : annual and monthly figures : averages. Base : 1932 = 100.

Rumania. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for January, April, July, and October. Base : 1914 = 100.

Saar Territory. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Base : 1929 = 100.

Sweden. Annual figures : averages. Base : 1913 = 100.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure " ; the sign ° : " branches relating to men only ".

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES (*concluded*)

Date	Switzerland						Union of South Africa
	Mines *, industries, public services *, commerce						Mines, ind., pub. serv., comm.
	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Weekly rates
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	*	201	*	202	*	197	134
1928	*	201	*	202	*	197	135
1929	228	205	238	206	257	200	136
1930	229	207	242	207	260	198	136
1931	232	208	242	208	260	198	131
1932	223	213	231	216	247	167	127
1933	—	—	—	—	—	—	126†

Date	Czechoslovakia					U.S.S.R.	Yugo-slavia
	Agriculture		Mines	Industries (Prague)		Mines, industries	Mines, industries
	Men (without keep)	Women (without keep)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Daily wages (cash)		Earnings per shift	Minimum hourly rates	Minimum weekly rates	Monthly wages	Monthly earnings
Pre-war	*	*	*	10	11	*	100
1927	88	89	95	93	93	83	*
1928	95	97	98	97	97	91	*
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	*
1930	97	95	100	102	102	107	1596
1931	90	89	103	103	103	119	1476
1932	85	88	100	103	103	—	1277†
1933	—	—	—	102	102	—	—
1933 : March	79	81	*	102	102	—	1117
June	81	83	*	102	102	—	1113
Sept.	84	88	*	102	102	—	—
Dec.	—	—	*	102	102	—	—
1934 : March	—	—	*	102	101	—	—

Switzerland. Annual figures : averages. Base : 1913 = 100. From 1932 onwards the index numbers of daily earnings are no longer strictly comparable with those for previous years owing to a change in method.

Union of South Africa. Annual figures : 30 September of each year. Base : 1914 = 100.

Czechoslovakia. Annual and monthly figures : averages (pre-war : 1914). Base : 1929 = 100.

U.S.S.R. Annual figures : averages, except for 1931 (average of the first three quarters). Base : 1929 = 100.

Yugoslavia. Annual and monthly figures : averages. Base : July 1914 = 100. From June 1933 onwards, new series including commerce.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † : " provisional figure " ; the sign * : " branches relating to men only ".

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF REAL WAGES [1]

Date	Australia		Denmark				Estonia
	Agric., mines, ind., pub. serv., comm., various		Industries, public services °, commerce °, various				Mines, ind., pub. serv., various
	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled)	Men (unsk.)	Women (sk. & unsk.)	General average	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Weekly rates		Hourly earnings				Hourly earnings
	(*a*)	(*b*)					
Pre-war	100	100	67	65	60	65	*
1927	116	118	99	98	99	99	102
1928	118	114	99	99	99	99	101
1929	114	111	100	100	100	100	100
1930	122	107	107	106	106	107	114
1931	125	99	113	114	113	114	117
1932	117	87	112	114	114	114	117
1933	—	—	109†	112†	111†	111†	121
1932 : Sept.	*	*	111	114	114	114	*
Dec.	*	*	112	115	113	114	*
1933 : March	*	*	109	113	113	112	*
June	*	*	109	112	111	110	122
Sept.	*	*	107	110	110	109	*
Dec.	*	*	109	112	109	111	120

Date	United States		Great Britain and N. Ireland	New Zealand		Netherlands
	Industries (N.I.C.B. series)		Agriculture, mines, ind., pub. serv.	Agriculture °, mines °, industries, public services °, commerce, various		Mines, industries
	Men and women (skilled and unsk.)		Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Weekly rates	Minimum weekly rates		Hourly earnings
Pre-war	74	77	*	100	100	*
1927	105	102	106	99	99	97
1928	107	104	106	102	99	97
1929	109	107	106	104	99	101
1930	113	101	110	107	102	107
1931	120	98	116	107	104	112
1932	118	83	117	106	107	112
1933	121 †	89†	119	108	109	—
1933 : March	118	76	119	108	*	*
June	115	96	121	108	*	110
Sept.	126	94	118	108	*	*
Dec.	131	90	116	108	*	—
1934 : March	132	98	—	—	*	*

[1] Unless otherwise stated the notes for each country given under table I apply also to table II.

Australia. (*a*) for full-time working hours; (*b*) with allowance for unemployment.

The sign * signifies: "no figures exist"; the sign —: "figures not yet received"; the sign † "provisional figure"; the sign °: "branches relating to men only".

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF REAL WAGES [1] (*concluded*)

Date	Poland	Switzerland			Czechoslovakia (Prague)	
	Mines, industries	Mines *, industries, public services *, commerce			Industries	
	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (skilled and semi-sk.)	Men (unsk.)	Women (skilled and unskilled	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	
	Daily rates	Daily earnings			Minimum hourly rates	Minimum weekly rates
Pre-war	*	100	100	100	75	84
1927	100	126	126	123	93	92
1928	109	125	125	122	98	97
1929	116	127	128	124	100	100
1930	125	131	131	125	102	102
1931	129	139	139	132	108	107
1932	130	154	157	121	110	109
1933	130 †	—	—	—	111 †	110 †
1933 : March	130	*	*	*	111	110
June	132	*	*	*	109	108
Sept.	131	*	*	*	111	111
Dec.	132 †	*	*	*	112	112
1934 : March	—	*	*	*	111	111

Date	Sweden						Union of South Africa
	Mines *, industries, public services, commerce, various						Mines, ind., pub. serv., commerce
	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average (incl. young persons)		Men (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Weekly rates
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	156	130	175	141	158	131	102
1928	158	131	178	143	160	132	98
1929	164	137	182	147	166	138	90
1930	175	147	191	155	177	148	101
1931	181	150	197	158	182	152	101
1932	181	150	197	160	183	152	103
1933	—	—	—	—	—	—	105 †

[1] Unless otherwise stated the notes for each country given under table I apply also to table II.

Czechoslovakia. From 1930 onwards, series calculated by means of the new cost-of-living index number. The results are however almost the same as those obtained with the old index.

Union of South Africa. Revised series.

The sign * signifies : " no figures exist " ; the sign — : " figures not yet received " ; the sign † " provisional figure " ; the sign * : " branches relating to men only ".

Sources and Notes

Austria.

Mines : *Mitteilungen über den österreichischen Bergbau* (Bundesministerium für Handel und Verkehr), and *Statistisches Handbuch* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

The statistics of earnings per shift of male and female workers are based upon an annual enquiry of the Mines Administration. They cover all mining districts of the country, and refer to all underground and surface workers employed in mines for the extraction of coal (hard coal and lignite), iron, and other minerals, and in salt works. The averages are obtained by dividing the total wages bill (taking into account all allowances and deductions) by the number of shifts worked. The index numbers have been calculated by the International Labour Office. Base : 1929 = 100.

Lithuania.

Agriculture : *Annuaire statistique de la Lithuanie*, and *Statistikos Biuletenis* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics of total yearly wages (in cash and kind) of male and female workers are based on an annual enquiry carried out by the Central Statistical Office. They cover all parts of the country, and refer to permanent workers provided with board and lodging. The index numbers have been calculated by the International Labour Office. Base : 1929 = 100.

Czechoslovakia.

Mines : *Rapports de l'Office de Statistique de la République tchécoslovaque.*

The statistics of earnings per shift of male and female workers are based on the results of an annual enquiry organised by the Statistical Office. They cover all mining districts of the country, and refer to all underground and surface workers employed in mines for the extraction of coal (hard coal and lignite), iron, and other ores and minerals. The averages are obtained by dividing the total wages bill (taking into account all bonuses and allowances in cash and in kind, holidays with pay, etc., but without substracting deductions) by the number of shifts worked. The index numbers have been calculated by the International Labour Office. Base : 1929 = 100.

Wages and Hours of Work of Workers in Certain Occupations in Various Towns in October 1933

In October 1933 the International Labour Office undertook a further enquiry into wages, hours of work, and other factors in the remuneration of workers in certain occupations in various towns. This was in continuation of previous enquiries, and in particular that of October 1932. [1] The present article is devoted to the presentation of the detailed data obtained concerning wages and hours of work. The data collected on accessory sources of remuneration

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVII, No. 6, June 1933, and Vol. XXVIII, Nos. 1 and 2, July and August 1933 : " Wages, Hours of Work, and Other Factors in the Remuneration of Workers in Certain Towns in October 1932 ".

(family allowances, holidays with pay, social insurance contributions) will appear later in a study in which the general results of the enquiry will be more closely analysed with a view to demonstrating their general scope as well as their various limitations.

Pending the appearance of the study referred to, readers desiring to use the data given below for international comparisons may refer to the remarks made in the previous article. All the explanations given on the character of the figures published and the indications as to the method of using them for purposes of comparison, either from the point of view of the workers' real income or from that of labour costs, as well as all the reservations made in regard to the limited scope and uncertainty of such comparisons, apply in their entirety to the results of the present enquiry. The necessity for referring to the previous article cannot therefore be over-emphasised.

Data are also given in the appendix to the present article (table A) corresponding to those published for October 1932, with a view to calculating roughly the purchasing power of wages. These "cost-of-living coefficients" (based on the cost of a "basket of provisions") have only, it should be recalled, a strictly limited signification; detailed explanations on this point and on the method of using these coefficients are given in the text accompanying the table. A second table in the appendix (table B) contains the coefficients for the conversion of various national currencies into French francs, in order to enable the reader to transform the wage data into a common monetary unit if desired.

Scope of the Enquiry and Arrangement of the Data

The present enquiry, like the preceding ones, is based on information supplied by the competent statistical services (national or municipal) in the various countries. It covers 67 towns in 20 countries, as compared with the enquiry of 1932, which covered 77 towns in 22 countries. The decrease arises from the fact that no data have as yet been received either from Germany or from Yugoslavia. The occupations considered, 30 in number, are the same as before.

The method of arrangement is also the same as before. A slight rearrangement has, however, been effected in the system of the notes accompanying the tables, with a view to reducing their quantity without lessening the precision of the statistics. [1]

[1] The double system of references to the notes (i.e. by letter as well as by number) has been extended. The references by letter have been maintained to indicate that in some cases the data in the tables relate to occupations slightly different from those mentioned in the first column of the table. Further, in table I, the letter references have been used to indicate that the data published are the result of calculations made by the Office on the basis of original data (e.g. reduction of data per day, week, month, or year to data per hour; average of two or more wage figures). The number references (the numeration being separate for each country) have been retained for other indications specially concerning the country in question.

Money Wages

Table I gives the information received for the different towns and occupations on the hourly wages of adult male workers.

Special efforts have been made in the course of the present enquiry to make quite clear the exact nature of the wage data collected. Careful examination of the replies received has shown that the terminology used in the various countries, and even in different industries or districts in the same country, offers a great degree of variety and hardly lends itself to uniform definitions. In particular, it appears that the use of an identical term is by no means a guarantee that the figures refer to identical groups. In these circumstances, the only distinction maintained in the tables has been the essential one between "rates" ("rates for time workers" and "basic time rates for piece workers") and "earnings", while it is left to the explanations in the notes to make the meaning of the figures as precise as possible, in accordance with the indications received. (The "basic time rates for piece workers" are given in parentheses under the general heading "rates".)

With regard to the series of terms concerning rates for time workers, such as "minimum", "standard", "typical", "actual", "current", "predominant", etc., their meaning varies from one case to another, and a systematic discrimination between them seems impossible. It has not even seemed worth while to maintain the distinction made in previous enquiries for "minimum" rates, for in many cases there seems to be no clear difference between the so-called "minimum" rates and rates otherwise described and representative of the rates actually in force.

With regard to earnings, an endeavour has been made (so far as the data available enable this to be done) to establish a distinction in the notes between hourly earnings calculated exclusively from the wages paid for *normal* hours worked and those calculated from wages for the *total number* of hours worked, the latter being slightly higher than the former owing to the bonuses usually paid for overtime.

Hours of Work

Table II contains the data on the number of normal hours of work per week in the towns and occupations for which wage data are given in table I.

The data refer to *normal* hours of work, and therefore cannot be used as an indication of actual hours, especially as short time is very prevalent in many industries at the present time. The information received for three countries on actual hours worked in the industries or occupations covered by the enquiry is given in addition at the beginning of the notes to table II.

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Australia		Austria	Belgium	Canada						Denmark	
	Melbourne	Sydney	Vienna	Brussels	Halifax	Montreal	Ottawa	Toronto	Vancouver	Winnipeg	Copenhagen	
	Rates [1]		Rates [1]	Rates [1]	Rates [1]						Rates [1]	Earnings [2]
	s. d.	s. d.	Sch.	Frs.	$	$	$	$	$	$	Kr.	Kr.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*												
Fitters and turners	1 11.27	2 0.39	— [3]	5.40	0.65 *b*	0.65 *b*	0.60 *b*	0.65 *b*	0.75 *b*	0.70 *b*	0.96	1.62
Iron moulders	1 11.27	2 0.39	— [3]	5.75	0.65	0.70	0.60	0.65	0.70	0.75	—	1.75
Patternmakers	2 1.48	2 2.59	— [3]	6.00	0.66	0.75	0.75	0.70	0.90	0.85	—	1.84
Labourers (unskilled)	1 6.86	1 7.95	— [3]	4.25	0.34	0.35	0.40	0.40	0.45	0.40	0.95	1.29
E. *Building:*												
Bricklayers and masons	2 2.59 *d*	2 7.17 *d*	1.49 *e*	5.25	0.98	0.75	1.00	0.90	1.23	1.05	1.21	2.44
Structural iron workers	1 7.80	1 8.93	1.35 *e*	5.25	—	—	0.65	0.80	1.00	0.80	—	—
Concrete workers	1 7.80	1 8.93	1.35 *e*	5.25	0.35	0.35	0.40	0.45	0.45	0.45	—	—
Carpenters and joiners	2 1.25	2 6.68	1.57 *e*	5.50	0.55	0.65	0.70	0.80	0.88	0.75	1.15 *d*	2.01 *d*
Painters	2 1	2 4.18	1.52 *e*	5.25	0.50	0.60	0.55	0.70	0.75	0.70	1.26	1.88
Plumbers	2 2.50	2 6.77	1.60 *e*	6.00	0.70	0.65	0.75	0.85	1.00	1.00	0.96	1.83
Electrical fitters	1 11.77	2 4.91	1.60 *e*	5.25	0.80	0.65	0.70	1.00	0.89 *c*	0.90	0.92	1.65
Labourers (unskilled)	1 7.80	1 8.93	1.12 *e*	4.05	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.45	0.45	0.40	—	1.75
F. *Furniture making:*												
Cabinet makers	1 9.33	2 2.18	1.40 *e*	5.70	—	0.60	—	—	0.73	—	1.08	1.61
Upholsterers	1 8.90	2 2.18	1.40 *e*	5.25	—	0.75	—	—	0.75	—	1.05	1.64
French polishers	1 9.33	2 2.18	1.40 *e*	5.70	—	0.65	—	—	0.65	—	—	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*												
Hand compositors (*b*)	1 11.64	1 11.64	1.47 *e*	6.21 *e*	0.80 *e*	0.70 *e*	0.78 *e*	0.75 *e*	0.92 *e*	0.80 *e*	1.26 *c e*	1.72
Machine compositors (*b*)	2 2.59	2 2.59	1.76 *e*	6.46 *e*	0.80 *e*	0.70 *e*	0.78 *e*	0.75 *e*	0.92 *e*	0.80 *e*	1.54 *e*	1.72
Machine minders	1 11.64	1 11.64	1.47 *e*	6.21 *e*	0.66 *e*	0.70 *e*	0.78 *e*	0.75 *e*	0.92 *e*	0.80 *e*	1.16 *c e*	1.82
Bookbinders	1 11.64	1 11.64	1.37 *e*	6.15 *e*	0.68 *e*	0.73 *e*	0.76 *e*	0.75 *e*	0.92 *e*	0.80 *e*	1.15	1.73
Labourers (unskilled)	1 5.75	1 5.75	1.04 *e*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.30
L. *Food industry:*												
Bakers	2 5	2 9	1.53 *c e*	6.40	0.44 *e*	0.46 *e*	0.46 *e*	0.54 *e*	0.54 *e*	0.48 *e*	1.43 *c e*	1.50
M. *Transport:*												
Trams and buses: Drivers	1 5.85	1 9.95	1.72 *d g* [4]	4.79 *e*	0.55 *b*	0.51 *b*	0.54 *b*	0.60 *b*	0.63 *b*	0.51 *b*	1.30 *c g*	—
Conductors	1 5.85	1 8.33	1.73 *d g* [4]	4.79 *e*	0.55 *b*	0.51 *b*	0.54 *b*	0.60 *b*	0.63 *b*	0.51 *b*	1.30 *c g*	—
Cartage: Motor drivers	1 5.63	2 0	—	4.79 *e*	0.39 *e*	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.50	0.45	1.21 *e*	— [5]
Horse drivers (*b*)	1 4.04	1 10.09	—	—	0.28 *e*	0.35	0.35	0.43 *e*	—	—	1.03 *e*	— [5]
Railways: Goods porters	1 5.44	1 7.91	—	—	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.45	—	—
Permanent way labourers	1 4.90	1 9.95	—	—	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	—	—
O. *Electric power distribution:*												
Electrical fitters	1 8.44	2 3.27	1.21 *e*	5.25	0.70	0.62	0.65	0.80	0.87	0.73	—	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1 3.94	1 11.18	0.97 *e*	—	0.40	0.37	0.45	0.40	0.40	0.38	—	—
Q. *Local authorities:*												
Labourers (unskilled)	1 4.27	1 11.18	—	—	0.40	0.40	0.45	0.60	0.54	0.43	—	1.61

(*a*) See notes on pp. 731-732. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730. (*c*) Average of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 1/3 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Spain				Estonia				United States			
	Barcelona	Bilbao	Madrid	Valencia	Tallinn		Tartu		Baltimore (Md.)		Boston (Mass.)	
	Rates [1]				Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]
	Ptas.	Ptas.	Ptas.	Ptas.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	$	$	$	$
C. *Mechanical engineering :*												
Fitters and turners	1.55	1.70	1.81	1.65	0.30 (0.28)	0.45 [3]	0.25 (0.13)	0.25	—	0.66 *b*	—	0.58 *b*
Iron moulders	1.55	1.25	1.81	1.43	(0.29)	0.47	(0.14)	0.41 [3]	—	0.56 *b*	—	0.64 *b*
Patternmakers	1.55	1.25	1.81	1.43	(0.29)	0.47	(0.14)	0.41 [3]	—	0.62 *b*	—	0.72 *b*
Labourers (unskilled)	1.25	1.00	1.00	1.02	0.22 (0.22)	0.27 [3]	0.18 (0.19)	0.20	—	0.36	—	0.41
E. *Building :*												
Bricklayers and masons	1.85	1.47	1.75	1.30	0.36 (0.29)	0.34	0.30 (0.29)	0.29	1.00	—	1.30	—
Structural iron workers	1.71	1.19	1.56	1.30	(0.30)	0.30	—	—	1.38	—	1.20	—
Concrete workers	1.52	1.31	1.37	1.30	—	—	—	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—
Carpenters and joiners	—	1.41	1.60	1.25	0.38 (0.38)	0.36	0.23 (0.28)	0.24	0.65 *b*	—	1.18 *b*	—
Painters	1.71	1.32	1.69	1.30	—	—	(0.24)	0.24 [3]	1.00	—	1.13	—
Plumbers	1.71	1.47	1.56	—	—	[3]	—	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—
Electrical fitters	1.71	1.51	1.63	—	—	—	—	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1.23	1.09	1.15	1.02	0.25 (0.25)	0.26	(0.19)	0.19	—	—	0.70	—
F. *Furniture making :*												
Cabinet makers	1.68	1.44	1.50	—	0.31	0.31	0.23	0.24 [3]	—	—	—	—
Upholsterers	1.68	1.41	1.68	—	0.40 (0.55)	0.50	—	0.25 [3]	—	—	—	—
French polishers	1.68	1.43	1.68	—	—	0.23	—	—	—	—	—	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding :*												
Hand compositors (*b*)	1.72	1.67	1.78	1.37	0.46 (0.38)	0.46	0.36	0.36	1.00	—	0.86	—
Machine compositors (*b*)	1.83	2.42	2.46	1.79	0.58	0.60	0.39	0.44	1.00 *b*	—	0.90 *b*	—
Machine minders	1.85	1.67	1.78	1.33	0.51	0.51	0.44	0.46 [3]	1.00 *b*	—	0.90 *b*	—
Bookbinders	1.70	1.54	1.72	1.25	0.45	0.48	0.40	0.48	—	—	0.81 [4]	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1.02	1.13	1.12	1.02	0.33	0.33	0.27	0.27	—	—	—	—
L. *Food industry :*												
Bakers	1.50 *b c*	1.64	1.89	1.50	0.26 (0.40)	0.28	0.25	0.30	0.63 [3]	—	0.73 [3]	—
M. *Transport :*												
Trams and buses : Drivers	1.61 *d*	1.19	1.63	1.22	0.38	0.42 [3]	0.25 *b*	0.25 *b*	—	—	0.69 *b*	—
Conductors	1.45 *d*	1.09	1.63	1.22	0.27	0.31 [3]	—	—	—	—	0.69 *b*	—
Cartage : Motor drivers	1.47	—	1.50	1.50	0.39 (0.35)	0.39	—	—	—	—	—	—
Horse drivers (*b*)	—	1.25	1.25	—	0.30	0.41 [3]	—	—	—	—	—	—
Railways : Goods porters	0.97	—	0.73	0.69	0.29	0 30 [3]	—	—	—	—	—	—
Permanᵗ way labourers	0 88	—	0.73	0.69	0.26 [4]	—	0.25 [4]	—	—	—	—	—
O. *Electric power distribution :*												
Electrical fitters	1.55	1.56	1.94	—	0.42	0.42 [3]	0.34	0.34	1.00 *b*	—	0.90 *b*	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1.25	1.09	1.13	—	0.29	0.29	0.25	0.25	—	—	—	—
Q. *Local authorities :*												
Labourers (unskilled)	1.23	1.09	1.00	1.02	0.27	0.29 [3]	0.16 (0.17)	0.20	—	—	—	—

(*a*) See notes on pp. 732-733. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730. (*c*) Average of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 1/3 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	United States (*cont.*)															
	Chicago (Ill.)		Denver (Col.)		Los Angeles (Cal.)		New Orleans (La.)		New York (N.Y.)		Philadelphia (Pa.)		St. Louis (Mo.)		San Francisco (Cal.)	
	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
C. *Mechanical engineering:*																
Fitters and turners	—	0.49 *b*	—	0.43 *b*	—	0.72 *b*	—	—	—	0.65 *b*	—	0.57 *b*	—	0.51 *b*	—	0.72 *b*
Iron moulders	—	0.51 *b*	—	0.50 *b*	—	0.49 *b*	—	—	—	0.56 *b*	—	0.56 *b*	—	0.37 *b*	—	0.49 *b*
Patternmakers	—	0.71 *b*	—	0.71 *b*	—	0.80 *b*	—	0.56 *b*	—	0.70 *b*	—	0.65 *b*	—	0.60 *b*	—	0.80 *b*
Labourers (unskilled)	—	0.40	—	0.40	—	0.43	—	0.19	—	0.43	—	0.39	—	0.31	—	0.43
E. *Building:*																
Bricklayers and masons	1.38	—	1.31	—	1.00	—	1.00	—	1.65	—	1.44 *d*	—	1.38 *d*	—	1.38	—
Structural iron workers	1.35	—	1.09	—	1.13	—	1.25	—	1.65	—	1.38	—	1.47	—	1.20	—
Concrete workers	1.31 *b*	—	1.09 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.40 *b*	—	1.05 *b*	—	1.31 *b*	—	1.13 *b*	—
Carpenters and joiners	1.31 *b*	—	1.09 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	0.75 *b*	—	1.40 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—	0.90 *b*	—
Painters	1.41	—	0.75	—	1.00	—	0.75	—	1.40	—	1.00	—	1.25	—	0.88	—
Plumbers	1.38 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.13 *b*	—	1.05 *b*	—	1.50 *b*	—	1.04 *b*	—	1.44 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—
Electrical fitters	1.50 *b*	—	0.90 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—	1.40 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—	1.68 *b*	—	1.00 *b*	—
Labourers (unskilled)	0.83	—	0.50	—	0.63	—	—	—	0.50	—	0.50	—	0.79	—	0.69	—
F. *Furniture making:*																
Cabinet makers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Upholsterers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
French polishers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*																
Hand compositors (*b*)	1.23	—	0.92	—	1.07	—	0.78	—	1.25	—	0.87	—	0.96	—	1.11	—
Machine compositors (*b*)	1.26 *b*	—	0.92 *b*	—	1.21 *b*	—	0.78 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—	0.91 *b*	—	1.03 *b*	—	1.11 *b*	—
Machine minders	1.26 *b*	—	0.92 *b*	—	1.21 *b*	—	—	—	1.25 *b*	—	—	—	1.03 *b*	—	1.11 *b*	—
Bookbinders	0.96 *c*	—	0.92	—	0.96	—	0.85	—	1.00 *e*	—	0.75	—	0.93	—	1.09	—
Labourers (unskilled)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
L. *Food industry:*																
Bakers	—	—	0.59 *e*	—	0.75 *e*	—	0.51 *e*	—	0.92 *e*	—	—	—	0.69 *e*	—	0.81	—
M. *Transport:*																
Trams and buses: Drivers	0.70 *b*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.80 *b*	—	—	—	0.60 *b*	—	0.75 *b*	—
Conductors	0.70 *b*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.56 *b*	—	—	—	0.60 *b*	—	0.75 *b*	—
Cartage: Motor drivers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Horse drivers (*b*)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Railways: Goods porters	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Permanent way labourers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
O. *Electric power distribution:*																
Electrical fitters	1.45 *b*	—	—	—	1.06 *b*	—	0.85 *b*	—	1.40 *b*	—	1.25 *b*	—	—	—	1.00 *b*	—
Labourers (unskilled)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Q. *Local authorities:*																
Labourers (unskilled)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(*a*) See notes on pp. 732-733. (*b*) See genera lnotes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730. (*c*) Averages of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 1/3 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	France					Great Britain						
	Bordeaux	Lille	Lyons	Marseilles	Paris	Birmingham	Bristol	Glasgow	Leeds	London	Manchester	Newcastle
	Rates [1]					Rates [1]						
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*												
Fitters and turners	3.98 (2.63) *c d*	4.10 *c* (3.70)	5.35 *d* [4]	4.75	5.96 (6.86)	1 2.81 *e*	1 2.94 *e c*	1 3.10 *c e*	1 2.55 *e*	1 4.06 *e*	1 2.81 *e*	1 2.81 *e*
Iron moulders	4.63 *c* (4.00)	4.23 *c* (3.70)	—	4.75	6.02 (6.82) *b*	1 3.32 *e*	1 2.81 *e*	1 4.56 *e*	1 3.83 *e*	1 4.06 *e*	1 3.95 *e*	1 3.32 *e*
Patternmakers	4.25 *c* (4.00)	4.63 *c* (3.70)	—	5.25	7.80	1 3.83 *e*	1 3.57 *e*	1 4.56 *c e*	1 3.57 *e*	1 5.17 *e*	1 3.83 *e*	1 3.83 *e*
Labourers (unskilled)	2.25 (2.75) *c*	3.30	3.78 [4]	3.75	4.10	0 10.72 *e*	0 10.39 *c e*	0 11.07 *c e*	0 10.85 *e*	0 11.56 *e*	0 10.21 *e*	0 10.98 *c e*
E. *Building:*												
Bricklayers and masons	4.25 *c*	4.63 *c*	7.00	5.25	6.38 *c*	1 5.50 [2]	1 5.50	1 6.25 *d*	1 5.50	1 7	1 5.50	1 5.50
Structural iron workers	3.75 *c*	4.38 *c*	—	4.75	—	1 5.50	1 5.50	1 4	1 5.50	1 6.50	1 5.50	1 5.50
Concrete workers	4.38 *c*	4.25 *c*	7.50 *b*	4.50	—	1 2.50 *b*	1 2.50 *b*	1 1.50 *b*	1 2.50 *b*	1 3 *b*	1 2.50 *b*	1 2.50 *b*
Carpenters and joiners	4.19 *c*	4.63 *c*	7.08 *d* [2]	5.00	6.13 *d*	1 5.50 [2]	1 5.50	1 6	1 5.50	1 7	1 5.50	1 5.50
Painters	4.75 *c d*	4.25 *c*	6.75	4.75	6.00	1 5.50 [2]	1 5.50	1 6	1 5.50	1 6	1 5.50	1 5.50
Plumbers	4.50 *c*	4.63 *c*	7.00 *b*	4.75	6.25	1 5.50 [2]	1 5.50	1 6	1 5.50	1 7	1 5.50	1 5.50
Electrical fitters	3.75 *c*	4.13 *c*	6.75	5.00	6.00	1 5.75	1 5.75	1 6	1 5.75	1 8.75	1 5.75	1 5.75
Labourers (unskilled)	3.50 *c*	3.63 *c*	5.88 *c*	4.00	5.00 *c*	1 1.25 [2]	1 1.25	1 1.50	1 1.25	1 2.25	1 1.25	1 1.25
F. *Furniture making:*												
Cabinet makers	4.75 *c*	4.63 *c*	—	5.00	6.38 *c*	1 5 [2]	1 5	1 6.50 [2]	1 6	1 7 [2]	1 5.50	1 6.50
Upholsterers	4.00 *c*	4.63 *c*	—	5.50	—	1 5 [2]	1 5	1 6.50 [2]	1 6	1 7 [2]	1 5.50	1 6
French polishers	3.88 *c*	4.38 *c*	—	5.00	—	1 5 [2]	1 5	1 6.50 [2]	1 6	1 6.50 [2]	1 5.50	1 6
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*												
Hand compositors (*b*)	4.81 *e*	5,00 *e*	5.49 *e*	5.63	6.50	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 6.88 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 10.25 *e* [3 4]	1 7.38 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]
Machine compositors (*b*)	5.06 *e*	5.00 *e*	5.49 *e*	5.63	—	1 8.63 *e* [3]	1 8.83 *e* [3]	1 8.94 *c e* [3]	1 8.63 *e* [3]	2 0 *e* [3 4]	1 9.50 *e* [3]	1 8.63 *e* [3]
Machine minders	4.81 *e*	5.00 *e*	5.49 *e*	5.25	—	1 8.75 *c e* [3]	1 8.75 *c e* [3]	—	1 8.75 *c e* [3]	2 2.13 *c e* [3]	1 9.50 *c e* [3]	1 8.75 *c e* [3]
Bookbinders	4.81 *e*	5.00 *e*	—	4.69	5.35	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 6.88 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]	1 8 *e*	1 7.38 *e* [3]	1 6.63 *e* [3]
Labourers (unskilled)	3.59 *e*	—	—	3.50	—	1 1.88 *b e* [3]	1 1.88 *b e* [3]	1 2.63 *b e* [3]	1 1.88 *b e* [3]	1 5.75 *b e* [3]	1 2.38 *b e* [3]	1 1.88 *b e* [3]
L. *Food industry:*												
Bakers	4.83 *e* [3]	—	6.00 *b* [3]	5.00	—	1 2.83 *c e* [3]	—	—	1 3.06 *c e* [3 4]	1 3.63 *c e* [4]	1 2.50 *e*	1 3.50 *e*
M. *Transport:*												
Trams and buses: Drivers	3.13 *e* [3]	—	4.46 [3]	4.65	—	1 3.50 *d e*	1 2.75 *b c e*	1 2.94 *d e*	1 3 *c e*	1 7 *d e*	1 2.63 *c e*	1 2.63 *d e*
Conductors	3.13 *e* [3]	—	4.46 [3]	4.65	—	1 2.38 *c e*	1 1.25 *b c e*	1 2.25 *d e*	1 1.63 *b c e*	1 6.13 *d e*	1 2.19 *c e*	1 2.38 *b c e*
Cartage: Motor drivers	4.35 *c e*	—	—	5.00	—	—	1 5.50 *e* [3]	1 2.75 *e*	1 2.75 *e*	1 5.13 *c e* [3]	—	1 2.75 *e*
Horse drivers (*b*)	3.85 *e*	—	—	4.00	—	—	1 2.25 *e* [3]	1 0.50 *e*	1 0.25 *e*	1 1.88 *c e* [3]	—	1 0.75 *e*
Railways: Goods porters	4.25 *c g*	—	—	3.50	—	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 11.42 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*
Perman[t] way labourers	4.25 *c g*	—	—	3.75	—	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 11.89 *c e*	0 10.71 *e*	0 10.71 *e*
O. *Electric power distribution:*												
Electrical fitters	3.75 *c*	4.50 *c*	—	5.00	—	1 5.93 *c*	1 5.49 *e*	1 6.52	1 5.55	1 9.25	1 5.41	1 4.93
Labourers (unskilled)	3.65 *c*	3.50 *c*	—	3.50	—	1 0.78	1 2.11 *e*	1 1.06	1 1.65	1 3.75	1 0.81	1 1.27 *c*
Q. *Local authorities:*												
Labourers (unskilled)	4.01 *c g*	4.00	4.75	4.50	—	1 0.91 *c*	1 2.68 *e*	1 1.06 *e*	1 0.25 *e*	1 3.24 *c e*	1 0.60 *e*	1 2.25 *c*

(*a*) See notes on p 733. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730. (*c*) Averages of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 3/4 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Hungary	Irish Free State			Italy						Latvia	
	Budapest	Cork	Dublin	Dundalk	Florence	Genoa	Milan	Rome	Trieste	Turin	Riga	
	Earnings [1]	Rates [1]			Rates [1]			Earnings [8]	Rates [1]		Rates	Earnings
	Pengös	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lat	Lat
C. *Mechanical engineering :*												
Fitters and turners	0.66	1 10.47 *e*	1 6.51 *e*	1 7	2.25	2.99	2.77	3.20	2.96	2.88 *d*	0.56 *d*	0.63 *d*
Iron moulders	0.73	1 10.47 *e*	1 6.51 *e*	1 7	2.25	2.99	2.98	2.90	2.38	3.20	0.43	0.69
Patternmakers	0.74	1 10.47 *e*	1 6.51 *e* [3]	1 7	—	—	—	—	2.96	—	0.62	0.68
Labourers (unskilled)	0.43	1 2.04 *e*	1 2.17 *c e*	0 10.21 *e*	1.75	1.93	2.21	2.15	1.95	2.05	0.36	0.43
E. *Building :*												
Bricklayers and masons	0.67	1 9	1 9.50 [4, 5]	1 8	2.65	2.99	3.09	3.12	3.20	2.95 *b*	0.60	0.55
Structural iron workers	0.48	—	1 8.50	—	2.65	—	—	—	—	2.15	—	—
Concrete workers	0.42	1 1.50	1 3	0 11	2.75	2.58	3.39	3.40	3.00	2.95	0.35	0.50
Carpenters and joiners	0.64	1 9	1 9 [4, 6]	1 7	2.60	3.22	3.34	3.15	3.03 *d*	2.95	0.54 *d*	0.52 *d*
Painters	0.58	1 9	1 8.50	1 7	3.25	3.17	3.58	3.00	3.70	2.95	0.55	0.49
Plumbers	1.00	1 9	1 10.25	1 7	2.60	2.67	—	3.35	—	2.30	0.67	0.68
Electrical fitters	0.82	1 10.50	1 10	—	3.23 *c*	3.31	—	4.45	3.88	2.97	0.54	0.55
Labourers (unskilled)	0.31	1 1.50	1 3	0 11	1.85	2.19 *c*	1.95	2.53	2.25	1.80	0.37	0.38
F. *Furniture making :*												
Cabinet makers	0.66	1 9	1 10 [7]	1 7	2.65	3.22	3.60	3.43	4.00	2.85	0.50	0.55
Upholsterers	0.61	1 9	1 10 [7]	1 5	2.35	—	—	4.20	2.80	2.90	0.50	0.51
French polishers	0.56	1 9	1 10 [7]	1 4.50	2.50	3.22	2.16	3.43	2.30	2.85	—	0.62
G. *Printing and bookbinding :*												
Hand compositors (*b*)	2.08	1 8.50 *e*	1 9 *e*	1 5.75 *e*	3.30	3.83	4.06	3.51	4.06	4.06	—	—
Machine compositors (*b*)	2.39	2 0.13 *b e*	1 10.25 *e*	1 7.13 *e*	3.75	4.12 *b*	4.44	3.78	4.45 *b*	4.48	0.83	0.83
Machine minders	1.84	1 8.50 *e*	1 9 *e*	1 5.75 *e*	3.75	3.83	4.00	3.51	4.06	4.07	0.97	0.94
Bookbinders	0.79	1 9.38 *e*	1 9 *e*	—	3.25	3.83	3.75	2.99	3.75	4.04	0.85	0.85
Labourers (unskilled)	1.13	1 3 *d e*	1 3 *e*	—	2.20	2.30 *b*	3.13	2.35	2.69	—	0.48	0.51
L. *Food industry :*												
Bakers	0.80	— *b* [9]	1 10.17 *b e*	1 6.38 *b e*	3.50	2.60	3.25	3.35	3.30	3.25	0.56	0.65
M. *Transport :*												
Trams and buses : Drivers	0.60	1 4.25 *b c e*	1 4.25 *d e*	1 0.88 *b e*	2.20	3.49 *d*	3.02	—	2.76	3.19 *c*	1.19 *f*	—
Conductors	0.56	0 10.63 *b c e*	0 10.50 *d e*	0 11 *b e*	1.93	2.90 *d*	2.94	—	2.65	3.12 *c*	0.76 *f*	—
Cartage : Motor drivers	0.58	1 3.32 *c e*	— [8]	1 2.13 *e*	2.20	2.53	—	—	2.76 *b*	2.35 *c*	0.80 *f*	—
Horse drivers (*b*)	0.48	1 2.25 *d e*	1 1.86 *e*	0 11.75 *e*	2.20	2.07	—	—	1.86	2.65 *c*	0.53 *f*	—
Railways : Goods porters	0.34	0 9.75 *c e*	1 0.13 *e* [3]	0 11.75 *e*	2.10	2.88	—	—	1.60	2.65 *c*	—	—
Permanent way labourers	0.26	0 10 *e*	0 11.50 *e* [3]	0 9.50 *e*	1.80	3.16	—	3.55	2.82	2.65 *c*	0.40	—
O. *Electric power distribution :*												
Electrical fitters	0.81	1 10	1 9.82 *c e*	1 10	—	2.94	—	—	3.63	2.80	—	1.05
Labourers (unskilled)	0.62	1 2	1 2 *c*	0 10.25	—	2.30	—	—	2.88	1.95	0.53	0.70
Q. *Local authorities :*												
Labourers (unskilled)	0.52	1 1.11 *e*	1 4.09 *e*	0 10.30 *e*	—	—	2.73	2.45	2.53	1.80 *c*	0.50	—

(*a*) See notes on pp. 733-734. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730. (*c*) Average of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 1/3 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*cont.*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Norway		Netherlands						Poland			
	Oslo		Amsterdam		The Hague	Rotterdam	Utrecht		Katowitz	Lodz	Poznan	Warsaw
	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [1]	Earnings [2]	Rates [3]	Rates [3]	Rates [4]	Earnings [2]	Earnings [1]			
	Kr.	Kr.	Fl.	Fl.	Fl.	Fl.	Fl.	Fl.	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*												
Fitters and turners	1.21	1.32	(0.67)	0.79	—	0.59 (0.71) *c*	(0.52)	0.52	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Iron moulders	1.21	1.32	(0.67)	0.79	—	0.61 (0.73) *c*	(0.52)	0.52	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Patternmakers	1.21	1.32	(0.67)	0.79	—	0.59 (0.71) *c*	(0.52)	0.52	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Labourers (unskilled)	0.90	1.08	(0.51)	0.60	—	0.53 (0.58) *c*	(0.38)	0.42	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
E. *Building:*												
Bricklayers and masons	1.50	—	0.70	0.76	0.74	0.68 *c*	0.65 *b* [4]	0.69 *b c*	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Structural iron workers	—	—	—	—	0.74	0.70	—	0.58	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Concrete workers	1.44	—	0.70	0.73	0.74	0.70	0.65 [4]	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Carpenters and joiners	1.44	—	0.70	0.77	0.74	0.70	0.65 [4]	0.69 *c*	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Painters	1.50	—	0.69	—	0.69	0.65	0.65 [4]	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Plumbers	1.22 [6]	—	0.74	—	0.74	0.44 (0.74)	0.69	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Electrical fitters	1.51 *c*	1.68 *c*	0.76	—	0.75	0.70 (0.70)	—	0.65	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Labourers (unskilled)	1.37	—	0.65	0.74	0.69 *b*	0.65	0.60 [4]	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
F. *Furniture making:*												
Cabinet makers												
Upholsterers	1.50	— [6]	0.68 (0.71)	—	0.74	0.68	0.66	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
French polishers	1.60	— [6]	0.68 (0.71)	—	0.71	0.68	0.66	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
	1.50	— [6]	0.66	—	0.74	0.68	0.61	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*												
Hand compositors (*b*)	1.42 *b e* [3, 4]	— [7]	0.66	— [8]	0.68	0.68	0.61 [4]	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Machine compositors (*b*)	1.67 *b e* [3, 4]	— [7]	0.74	— [8]	0.77	0.77	0.69 [4]	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Machine minders	1.42 *b e* [3, 4]	— [7]	0.66	— [8]	0.68	0.68	0.61 *b*	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Bookbinders	1.42 *e*	—	0.66	— [8]	0.68	0.68	0.63 *c*	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
Labourers (unskilled)	1.13 *b e* [3]	—	0.53	— [8]	—	0.63	—	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
L. *Food industry:*												
Bakers	1.50 *e*	—	0.71 *e*	—	0.73	0.71 *e*	0.71 *c*	—	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]	— [5]
M. *Transport:*												
Trams and buses: Drivers	1.77 *b e*	—	0.82	0.92	0.70 *d*	0.76 *c e*	0.74 *b d*	0.78 *b d*	1.18	1.33	1.17	1.57
Conductors	1.77 *b e*	—	0.79	0.86	0.66 *c*	0.72 *c e*	0.66 *b*	0.71 *b*	1.14	1.18	1.01	1.57
Cartage: Motor drivers	1.42 *e*	—	—	—	0.45 *c*	0.62 *e*	0.64 *b*	0.69 *b*	0.74	0.76	0.56	0.65
Horse drivers (*b*)	— [6]	—	—	—	0.45 *c*	0.52 *e*	0.61 *b*	0.64 *b*	0.93	0.68	0.84	1.02
Railways: Goods porters	—	—	—	—	0.51 *c*	0.56 *c g*	—	0.41 *b*	0.74	0.76	0.56	0.65
Permanent way labourers	—	—	0.49 *c e*	—	0.51 *c*	0.56 *c g*	0.56 *b c*	—	0.74	0.76	0.56	0.65
O. *Electric power distribution:*												
Electrical fitters	1.65	—	0.79	0.88	—	0.75	0.74	0.76	1.15	1.95	1.17	2.33
Labourers (unskilled)	—	—	0.73	0.85	—	0.58	0.64	0.68	0.80	1.05	0.81	1.51
Q. *Local authorities:*												
Labourers (unskilled)	1.47 *e*	—	0.71 *c*	0.83 *c*	0.70	0.73 *c e*	0.64	0.68	0.89	0.68	0.81	0.74

(*a*) See notes on p. 734. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on pp. 730-731. (*c*) Average of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4 3/4 weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE I. WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*concluded*) (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Portugal		Sweden						Switzerland		
	Lisbon	Oporto	Göteborg		Malmö		Stockholm		Basle	Berne	Zurich
	Rates [1] *e*		Rates [1]	Earnings [1]	Rates [1]	Earnings [1]	Rates [1]	Earnings [1]	Rates [1]		
	Esc.	Esc.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*											
Fitters and turners	2.75 *b*	2.25 *b*	0.80 [3]	1.39	0.80 [3]	—	0.88 [3]	1.65	1.83 *b c*	1.83 *b c*	1.83 *b c*
Iron moulders	—	—	0.80 [3]	1.53	0.80 [3]	—	0.88 [3]	1.87	—	—	—
Patternmakers	2.50	1.50	0.80 [3]	1.39	0.80 [3]	—	0.88 [3]	1.80	—	—	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1.50	1.13	0.66 [3]	1.19	0.66 [3]	—	0.75 [3]	1.35	1.30 *b*	1.30 *b*	1.30 *b*
E. *Building:*											
Bricklayers and masons	2.50	1.50	1.45	2.26 [4]	1.34	1.84	1.60	3.28 [4]	1.73 [3]	1.72 [3]	1.78 [3]
Structural iron workers	1.50	1.50	—	—	—	—	1.60 [3]	1.71 [4]	—	—	—
Concrete workers	1.50	1.50	1.31	1.82 [4]	1.21	1.36	1.45	2.06 [4]	—	—	—
Carpenters and joiners	2.25	1.50	1.45	2.07 [4]	1.34	1.64	1.60	2.92 [4]	1.78 [3]	1.75 [3]	1.80 [3]
Painters	2.50	1.50	1.50 [3]	2.00 [4]	1.48 [3]	—	1.72 [3]	3.10 [4]	1.77 *b* [3]	1.75 [3]	1.80 [3]
Plumbers	2.50	1.25	1.26 [3]	1.96 [4]	1.21 [3]	—	1 38 [3]	2.38 [4]	1.70 *b* [3]	1.83 *c* [3]	1.70 *b* [3]
Electrical fitters	2.25	1.25	1.45	1.76 [4]	1.40	—	1.60	2.23 [4]	1.75 *b* [3]	1.80 *c* [3]	—
Labourers (unskilled)	1.50	1.00	1.45	1.82 [4]	1.21	1.36	1.45	2.06 [4]	1.38 [3]	1.40 [3]	1.40 [3]
F. *Furniture making:*											
Cabinet makers	2.25	1.25	1.10 [3]	1.26	1.05 [3]	—	1.20 [3]	1.46	1.76 [3]	1.80 [3]	1.94 [3]
Upholsterers	2.25	1.25	1.41 [3]	1.39	1.34 [3]	—	1.41 [3]	1.56	—	—	1.94 [3]
French polishers	2.25	1.13	1.10 [3]	1.26	1.10 [3]	—	1.20 [3]	1.46	—	—	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*											
Hand compositors (*b*)	2.50	1.63	1.34 [3]	1.40	1.28 [3]	1.45	1.34 [3]	1.62	1.73 *b e* [3]	1.90 *b e* [3]	1.90 *b e* [3]
Machine compositors (*b*)	3.75 *b*	1.75 *b*	1.47 [3]	1.55	1.40 [3]	1.62	1.47 [3]	1.82	2.11 *b e* [3]	2.29 *b e* [3]	2.29 *b e* [3]
Machine minders	—	—	1.34 [3]	1.46	1.28 [3]	1.45	1.34 [3]	1.62	1.73 *b e* [3]	1.90 *b e* [3]	1.90 *b e* [3]
Bookbinders	2.50	1.25	1.15 [3]	1.36	1.10 [3]	—	1.20 [3]	1.44	1.46 *b e* [3]	1.58 *b e* [3]	1.50 *b e* [3]
Labourers (unskilled)	—	1.00	1.16 [3]	1.11	1.11 [3]	1.18	1.16 [3]	1.23	0.94 *b e* [3]	1.08 *b e* [3]	1.00 *b e* [3]
L. *Food industry:*											
Bakers	1.50	1.50	1.35 [3]	1.55	1.56	1.78	1.42	1.62	— [4]	— [4]	— [4]
M. *Transport:*											
Trams and buses: Drivers	2.25	2.25	1.72	1.72	1.60	1.51	1.75	1.70	2.14 *c f*	2.33 *c f*	2.05 *d f*
Conductors	2.25	—	1.72	1.72	1.60	1.51	1.75	1.70	2.14 *c f*	2.33 *c f*	2.02 *c f*
Cartage: Motor drivers	2.50	2.50	1.31 [3]	—	1.20 [3]	1.38	1.40 [3]	1.54	1.51 *b e* [3]	1.50 *b e* [3]	1.75 *b e* [3]
Horse drivers (*b*)	2.00	1.25	1.12 [3]	—	1.12 [3]	1.27	1.27 [3]	1.39	1.34 *b e* [3]	1.37 *b e* [3]	1.57 *b e* [3]
Railways: Goods porters	—	3.13	1.47	1.38	1.41	—	1.52	1.46	1.37 *b c f*	1.51 *b c f*	1.47 *b c f*
Permanent way labourers	—	2.50	1.30	1.49	1.30	—	1.30	1.59	1.37 *b c f*	1.51 *b c f*	1.47 *b c f*
O. *Electric power distribution:*											
Electrical fitters	2.50	3.13	1.35	1.65	1.43	1.45	1.39	1.66	2.04 *c f*	2.28 *c f*	1.98 *c f*
Labourers (unskilled)	—	1.25	1.20	—	1.15	—	1.30	—	1.80 *c f*	2.02 *c f*	1.72 *c f*
Q. *Local authorities:*											
Labourers (unskilled)	—	1.00	1.20	1.65	1.15	1.45	1.30	2.19	1.80 *c f*	2.13 *c f*	1.72 *c f*

(*a*) See notes on p. 735. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on pp. 730-731. (*c*) Averages of two or more rates. (*d*) Average of rates for the two occupations indicated. (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by average normal hours of work (4⅓ weeks of 48 hours = 208 hours). (*g*) Averages calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work (52 weeks of 48 hours = 2,496 hours).

TABLE II. NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Australia		Austria	Belgium	Canada						Denmark	Spain			
	Melbourne	Sydney	Vienna	Brussels	Halifax	Montreal	Ottawa	Toronto	Vancouver	Winnipeg	Copenhagen	Barcelona	Bilbao	Madrid	Valencia
C. *Mechanical engineering :*															
Fitters and turners	44	44	48	48	44	44-50	44-48	44-50	44	44-50	48	48	48	48	44
Iron moulders	44	44	48	48	44	44-50	44-48	44-50	44	44-50	48	48	48	48	44
Patternmakers	44	44	48	48	44	44-50	44-48	44-50	44	44-50	48	48	48	48	44
Labourers (unskilled)	44	44	48	48	44	44-50	44-48	44-50	44	44-50	48	48	48	48	44
E. *Building :*															
Bricklayers and masons	44	44 [1]	48	48	44	44	44	40-44	40	44	48 [1]	44	48	44	44
Structural iron workers	44	44	48	48	—	—	44	44	40	44	—	44	48	48	44
Concrete workers	44	44	48	48	44-54	44	44	44	44	44	—	44	48	44-48	44
Carpenters and joiners	44	44	48	48	44	44	44	44	40	44	48 [2]	—	48	48	44
Painters	44	44	48	48	44	44	44	44	40	44	48 [2]	44	48	48	44
Plumbers	44	44	48	48	44	44	40	44	40	44	48	44	48	48	—
Electrical fitters	44	44	48	48	44	44	44	44	40	44	48	44	48	48	—
Labourers (unskilled)	44	44	48	48	44-54	44-54	44-54	44-54	44	44-54	48 [1]	44	48	48	44
F. *Furniture making :*															
Cabinet makers	48	44	48	48	—	50	—	—	44	—	48	48	32	48	—
Upholsterers	48	44	48	48	—	50	—	—	44	—	48	48	32	48	—
French polishers	48	44	48	48	—	50	—	—	44	—	—	48	32	48	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding :*															
Hand compositors (*b*)	44	44	48	48	44	44-48	44-48	44	44	44	48	48	48	48	48
Machine compositors (*b*)	44	44	48	48	44	44-48	44-48	44	44	44	48	48	36	36	48
Machine minders	44	44	48	48	44 *b*	44-48 *b*	44-48 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	48	48	48	48	48
Bookbinders	44	44	48	48	44	44-48	44-48	44	44	44	48	48	48	48	48
Labourers (unskilled)	44	44	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	48	48	48
L. *Food industry :*															
Bakers	44	44	48	48	54	54	54	48	48	50	48	48	48	48	—
M. *Transport :*															
Trams and buses : Drivers	48	44	—	48	60 *b*	40 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	42 *b*	—	48	48	48	48
Conductors	48	44	—	48	60 *b*	40 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	42 *b*	—	48	48	48	48
Cartage : Motor drivers	48	44	—	48	48-54	48-60	48-54	44-54	44-48	48-54	48 [4]	48	—	48	48
Horse drivers (*b*)	48	44	—	—	54	48-60	—	48-54	—	—	54-57	48	48	48	—
Railways : Goods porters	48	44	—	—	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	—	48	52	52	48
Permanent way labourers	48	44	—	—	48	48	48	48	48	48	—	48	52	52	48
O. *Electric power distribution :*															
Electrical fitters	48	44	48	48	44	44	48	49.5	44	44	—	48	48	48	—
Labourers (unskilled)	48	44	48	—	44	48	48	49.5	40	44	—	48	48	48	—
Q. *Local authorities :*															
Labourers (unskilled)	48	44	—	—	54	60	44	48	40	50	48	48	48	48	48

(*a*) See notes on p. 735. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730.

TABLE II. NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*a*)
(continued)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Estonia	United States										France				
	Tallinn, Tartu	Baltimore	Boston	Chicago	Denver	Los Angeles	New Orleans	New York	Philadelphia	St. Louis	San Francisco	Bordeaux	Lille	Lyons	Marseilles	Paris
C. *Mechanical engineering:*																
Fitters and turners	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	48
Iron moulders	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	48
Patternmakers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	48
Labourers (unskilled)	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	48
R. *Building:*																
Bricklayers and masons	48	40	40	40	40	40	44	40	40 [1]	40	40	48	48-54 [1]	48	48	48
Structural iron workers	48	40	40	40	40	44	44	40	40	40	40	48	48-54 [1]	—	48	—
Concrete workers	48	40 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	48	48-54 [1]	48 *b*	48	—
Carpenters and joiners	48	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	30 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	48	48-54 [1]	48	48	48
Painters	48	40	40	40	40	40	44	40	44 [2]	40	40	48	48-54 [1]	48	48	48
Plumbers	48	40 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	48	48-54 [1]	48 *b*	48	48
Electrical fitters	48	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	30 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	48	48-54 [1]	48	48	48
Labourers (unskilled)	48	40	40	44	44	40	44	40	44	40	40	48	48-54 [1]	48	48	48
F. *Furniture making:*																
Cabinet makers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	48
Upholsterers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	—
French polishers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	48	—	48	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*																
Hand compositors (*b*)	48	44	44	40	44	44	44	40	44	44	44	48	48	48	48	48
Machine compositors (*b*)	48	44 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	48	48	48	48	—
Machine minders	48	44 *b*	44 *b*	40 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	—	40 *b*	—	44 *b*	44 *b*	48	48	48	48	—
Bookbinders	48	—	48	44	44	44	44	44	48	44	44	48	48	—	48	48
Labourers (unskilled)	48	—	—	44	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—	—	48	—
L. *Food industry:*																
Bakers	48	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	—	48 *b*	48 *b*	48	—	48 *b*	54	—
M. *Transport:*																
Trams and buses: Drivers	48 *b*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—	48	—	—
Conductors	48 *b*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—	48	48	—
Cartage: Motor drivers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—	—	48	—
Horse drivers (*b*)	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	54	—	—	48	—
Railways: Goods porters	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—
Permanᵗ way labourers	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—
O. *Electric power distribution:*																
Electrical fitters	48	40 *b*	44 *b*	44 *b*	—	40 *b*	42.5 *b*	40 *b*	40 *b*	—	40 *b*	—	—	—	48	—
Labourers (unskilled)	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—
Q. *Local authorities:*																
Labourers (unskilled)	48	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	—	48	48	—

(*a*) See notes on pp. 735-736. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730.

TABLE II. NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*a*)
(*continued*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Great Britain							Hungary	Irish Free State		
	Birmingham	Bristol	Glasgow	Leeds	London	Manchester	Newcastle	Budapest	Cork	Dublin	Dundalk
C. *Mechanical engineering:*											
Fitters and turners	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	40-45-48	47	47	47
Iron moulders	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	32-48	47	47	47
Patternmakers	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	48	47	47	47
Labourers (unskilled)	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	48	47	47	47
E. *Building:*											
Bricklayers and masons	44-46.5 [1]	41.5-44 [2]	41.5-44 [2]	44-46.5 [1]	44	44-46.5 [1]	44	48-56	47	44	47
Structural iron workers	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	48	—	44	—
Concrete workers	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	44.5-49.5 *b* [1]	48	47	44	47
Carpenters and joiners	44-46.5 [1]	41.5-44 [2]	41.5-44 [2]	44-46.5 [1]	44	44-46.5 [1]	44	48	47	44	47
Painters	44-46.5 [1]	41.5-44 [2]	39-44 [1]	44-46.5 [1]	44	44-46.5 [1]	44	40-50	47	44	47
Plumbers	44-46.5 [1]	41.5-44 [2]	41.5-44 [2]	44-46.5 [1]	44	44-46.5 [1]	44	40	50	44	47
Electrical fitters	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	48	47	44	—
Labourers (unskilled)	44-46.5 [1]	41.5-44 [2]	41.5-44 [2]	44-46.5	44	44-46.5 [1]	44	56	47	44	47
F. *Furniture making:*											
Cabinet makers	47	47	47	44	47	46.5 [6]	44	48-60	47	44	44
Upholsterers	47	47	47	44	47	46.5 [6]	44	48	47	47	44
French polishers	47	47	47	44	47	46.5 [6]	44	48	47	47	44
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*											
Hand compositors (*b*)	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	36	48	48	48
Machine compositors (*b*)	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	36	47	48	48
Machine minders	48	48	—	48	48	48	48	36	48	48	48
Bookbinders	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	46-48	48	48	—
Labourers (unskilled)	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	36-47	48	48	—
L. *Food industry:*											
Bakers	48	—	—	48	48	48	48	48-56	*b* [1]	46 *b*	47 *b*
M. *Transport:*											
Trams and buses: Drivers	48	48 *b*	48	48	48	48	48	48	48 *b*	48	48 *b*
Conductors	48	48 *b*	48	48 *b*	48	48	48 *b*	48	48 *b*	48	48 *b*
Cartage: Motor drivers	—	48	48	48	48	—	48	48	48	— [1]	48
Horse drivers (*b*)	—	48	48	48	48	—	48	57	48	48.5	48
Railways: Goods porters	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	28	48	48	48
Permanent way labourers	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	40-48	48	48	48
O. *Electric power distribution:*											
Electrical fitters	47	47	48	47	47	47	47	48	47	44	47
Labourers (unskilled)	47	47	48	47	47	47	47	48	48.5	44	47
Q. *Local authorities:*											
Labourers (unskilled)	47	47	48	47 [4]	47 [4]	47	47	42-48-56	48-51	44	47

(*a*) See notes on pp. 735-736. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on p. 730.

TABLE II. NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1933 (*a*)

(*concluded*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Italy						Latvia	Norway	Netherlands				Poland	Portugal	Sweden	Switzerland
	Florence	Genoa	Milan	Rome	Trieste	Turin	Riga	Oslo	Amsterdam	The Hague	Rotterdam	Utrecht	4 towns	Lisbon, Oporto	Göteborg, Malmö Stockholm	Basle, Berne Zurich
C. *Mechanical engineering:*																
Fitters and turners	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48 *b*	48	48 *b*
Iron moulders	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	—	48	—
Patternmakers	48	48	—	—	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48	48	—
Labourers (unskilled)	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*
E. *Building:*																
Bricklayers and masons	48	48	48 [1]	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48 *b*	46	48	48	50 [1]
Structural iron workers	48	—	—	—	—	48	—	—	—	48	48	48	46	48	48	—
Concrete workers	48	48	48 [1]	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	—
Carpenters and joiners	48	48	48 [1]	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	— [4]
Painters	48	48	48 [1]	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	47.5 *b*
Plumbers	48	48	—	48	—	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*
Electrical fitters	48	48	—	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 [3] *b*
Labourers (unskilled)	48	48	48 [1]	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*	48	48	46	48	48	50 [1]
F. *Furniture making:*																
Cabinet makers	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48
Upholsterers	48	—	—	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 [4]
French polishers	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	—	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	—
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*																
Hand compositors (*b*)	48	48	48	48	48	48	—	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*
Machine compositors (*b*)	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48 *b*	48	44 *b*
Machine minders	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48 *b*	46	—	48	48 *b*
Bookbinders	48	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*
Labourers (unskilled)	48	48	48	48	48	—	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48	48	48 *b*
L. *Food industry:*																
Bakers	42	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	58
M. *Transport:*																
Trams and buses: Drivers	52	62	49.5	48	48	52	46	48	48	48	48 *b*	48 *b*	46	48	48 [1]	48
Conductors	52	62	49.5	48	48	50	46	48	48	48	48 *b*	48 *b*	46	48	48 [1]	48
Cartage: Motor drivers	60	60	—	—	60	60	46	48	—	57	50-55	48	46	48	50 [2]	51 *b*
Horse drivers (*b*)	60	60	—	—	60	48	46	48	—	55	50-55	55 [1]	46	48	50 [2]	51 *b*
Railways: Goods porters	60	48	—	—	60	48	—	—	62.5	57	48	48 *b*	46	48	48 [2]	48 *b*
Permanent way labourers	52	62	—	48	48	48	46	—	55	57	48	48 *b*	46	48	48 [4]	48 *b*
O. *Electric power distribution:*																
Electrical fitters	48	48	—	48	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48	48 [5]	48
Labourers (unskilled)	—	48	—	—	48	48	46	48	48	—	48	48	46	48	48 [4]	48
Q. *Local authorities:*																
Labourers (unskilled)	—	—	48	48	48	48	46	48	48	48	48	48	46	48	48 [6]	48

(*a*) See notes on pp. 735-736. (*b*) See general notes (relating to the definitions of occupations) on pp. 730-731.

General Notes on the Definition of Occupations, Indicated by the Letter *b*

All countries.

Compositors (hand and machine): book and job.
Horse drivers: one horse.

Canada.

Fitters and turners: machinists.
Machine minders (printing): " pressmen ".
Tram and bus drivers and conductors: tram employees only; in Halifax and Ottawa, tram operators (one-man).
Railway goods porters: freight truckers.

Spain.

Bakers: in Barcelona, " maestros de masa ".

Estonia.

Tram and bus drivers and conductors: in Tartu, bus operators (one-man).

United States.

Fitters and turners: " fitters and bench hands ".
Iron moulders: " machine molders ".
Patternmakers: patternmakers in foundries.
Concrete workers: cement finishers.
Carpenters and joiners: carpenters only.
Plumbers: plumbers and gasfitters.
Electrical fitters (building): inside wiremen.
Machine compositors: " machine operators ".
Machine minders (printing): " machine tenders ".
Electrical fitters (electric power distribution): linemen.

France.

Iron moulders: in Paris, " mouleurs à la main ".
Concrete workers: in Lyons, cement workers.
Plumbers: in Lyons, plumbers and zinc workers.
Bakers: in Lyons, foremen bakers.

Great Britain.

Concrete workers: levellers.
Labourers, unskilled (printing): porters.
Tram and bus drivers: in Bristol, tram employees only.
Tram and bus conductors: in Bristol, Leeds, and Newcastle, tram employees only.

Irish Free State.

Machine compositors: in Cork, monotype operators.
Bakers: table hands.
Tram and bus drivers and conductors: in Cork and Dundalk, bus employees only.

Norway.

Compositors (hand and machine) and *machine minders (printing):* workers after two years' service.
Labourers, unskilled (printing): helpers in bookbinding, in their second year's service.
Bus drivers and conductors: vehicles usually operated by one man.

Netherlands.

Bricklayers and masons: in Utrecht, masons only.
Labourers, unskilled (building): in The Hague, navvies.

Machine minders (printing) : in Utrecht, printers.

Tram and bus drivers and conductors : in Rotterdam and Utrecht, municipal employees.

Motor drivers and horse drivers : in Utrecht, municipal employees.

Railway goods porters : in Utrecht, workers " not regularly employed ".

Permanent-way labourers : in Utrecht, goods porters and permanent-way men (" cantonniers ") regularly employed.

Portugal.

Fitters and turners : turners only.

Machine compositors : linotype operators.

Switzerland.

Fitters and turners, and labourers, unskilled (mechanical engineering) : workers employed in the central heating industry.

Painters : in Basle, workers in their third year after apprenticeship.

Plumbers : in Basle and Zurich, workers in their third year after apprenticeship.

Electrical fitters (building) : in Basle, workers in their fourth year after apprenticeship.

Hand and machine compositors, machine minders (printing) : married workers.

Bookbinders and labourers, unskilled (printing) : workers in bookbinding workshops in their third year after apprenticeship.

Motor drivers and horse drivers : in Basle, workers in their second year of service ; in Berne, workers in their fifth year of service ; in Zurich, workers in their third year after apprenticeship.

Railway goods porters and permanent-way labourers : married workers.

Notes to Table I (Wages per Hour)

Australia.

[1] Minimum time rates of wages, as fixed by the latest arbitration award, etc., or by collective agreements in force, and which may be taken as fairly representing the average earnings.

Austria.

[1] Minimum time rates of wages as fixed by collective agreements in force at the end of December 1933, for highly skilled workers, and generally equivalent to ruling or predominant rates.

[2] Average actual earnings per week of time workers in large undertakings (figures in parentheses : piece workers) : fitters and turners : Sch. 64.08 (73.44); moulders : Sch. 65.76 (83.52) ; patternmakers : Sch. 68.64 (68.16) ; labourers : Sch. 49.44 (59.52). (Figures taken from special enquiries of the Austrian Federation of Industry (*Hauptverband der Industrie*).)

[3] Figures calculated by taking an average between the commencing salary and the final salary from the 27th year of service onwards, taking into account all allowances and bonuses in respect of normal work and all deductions for taxes and social insurance contributions.

Belgium.

[1] Average time wages, communicated to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare by various employers' associations ; the figures generally represent the minima quoted by the official employment exchange, in accordance with collective agreements or employers' offers.

Canada.

[1] Predominant time rates of wages in force on 1 October 1933 ; for most of the occupations under the headings building, printing, and transport, the figures given are union rates.

Denmark.

[1] Minimum time rates of wages or " minimum payment " on time work (especially in mechanical engineering) fixed by collective agreements ; the rates actually paid are generally higher.

[2] Average earnings per hour worked on time and piece work.

[3] Earnings per week : motor drivers : Kr. 60.35 ; horse drivers : Kr. 59.08.

Spain.

[1] Minimum time rates of wages embodied in contracts of employment established by joint labour boards or fixed by arbitration, or by employers, but representing as a rule the predominant wages or those most usually paid.

Estonia.

[1] Medians of time rates of wages in July 1933, determined from individual contracts of employment (collective agreements being almost entirely lacking). Figures in parentheses : average of minimum rates guaranteed to piece workers.

[2] Medians of average earnings per normal hour of work of time and piece workers in July 1933, family allowances being taken into account.

[3] The median of average earnings per hour worked is slightly different from that of earnings per normal hour for the occupations shown in the following table :

MEDIANS OF AVERAGE EARNINGS PER HOUR WORKED

Industry and occupation	Tallinn	Industry and occupation	Tartu
	E. Kr.		E. Kr.
Mechanical engineering :		Mechanical engineering :	
Fitters and turners	0.43	Iron moulders and pattern makers	0.38
Labourers (unskilled)	0.28	Building :	
Building :		Painters	0.25
Plumbers	0.40	Furniture making :	
Transport :		Cabinet makers	0.25
Tram and bus drivers	0.49	Upholsterers	0.33
Tram and bus conductors	0.32	Printing :	
Horse drivers	0.35	Machine minders	0.44
Railway goods porters	0.31		
Electric power distribution :			
Electrical fitters	0.44		
Local authorities :			
Labourers (unskilled)	0.30		

In other occupations actual earnings per hour worked are the same as earnings per normal hour.

[4] Basic rates, to which are added allowances in kind (clothing and housing) and long-service bonuses. Taking an estimate for the average value of these allowances in kind and the average between the minimum and maximum values of the long-service bonus, the total wage obtained is E. Kr. 0.35 for Tallinn and E. Kr. 0.35 for Tartu.

United States.

[1] Union minimum time rates of wages in force on 15 May 1933 ; these rates are considered representative of the whole year, being as a rule settled in the spring. The figures as a rule represent prevailing wages.

[2] Average earnings per hour worked in April, May, or June 1933 ; data concerning all important centres in each of the States in which the towns in question are situated (Bureau of Labour Statistics enquiry).

[3] Selected journeyman's rate. Most cities report other rates, both higher and lower.

[4] Prevailing rates ; range for all classes of work, $0.81 to $0.88 per hour.

[5] Rates varying between $0.84 and $1.11 per hour.

France.

[1] Average time rates of wages. Figures in parentheses : basic time rates for piece workers. For Paris, mechanical engineering, wages for August 1933.

[2] Plus 1½ kg. of bread per day.

[3] Including tool allowance for joiners.

[4] Figures supplied by the *Chambre syndicale des industries métallurgiques du Rhône.*

[5] Guaranteed minimum : Frs. 48 per day.

[6] Averages obtained by multiplying the daily wage (paid for 365 days) by 7, and dividing the product by 48.

Great Britain.

[1] Time rates of wages embodied in collective agreements or recognised by organisations of employers and workpeople, or rates usually paid, unless otherwise indicated (note [3]), on 1 October 1933.

For mechanical engineering, the figures are based on comprehensive returns obtained from its members by the Engineering and Allied Employers' National Federation. The time rates quoted represent the predominant rates actually paid to men on plain time work, inclusive of basic rates and bonus of 12s. per week. The collective agreements provide that piece-work prices shall be such as will enable a workman of average ability to earn at least 25 per cent. over time rates, excluding war bonus.

[2] Men working within the municipal boundary receive in addition 2d. per working day to cover travelling expenses.

[3] Rates described as minimum rates in collective agreements.

[4] Average of rates fixed by co-operative societies and those of other employers.

[5] Rates embodied in a notice issued by the employers' associations but not formally accepted by the trade union concerned.

[6] Guaranteed rates for piece work in newspaper printing works : 2s. 2½d. per hour.

[7] Rates for drivers of petrol vehicles with a carrying capacity of over two tons, up to and including 5 tons ; for vehicles over 5 tons the average rate is 1s. 6¼d. per hour.

[8] Average of two figures representing the range of the rates usually paid by the great majority of the 30 local authorities affected in the County of London.

Hungary.

[1] Weighted averages of normal hourly earnings, for time and piece work.

Irish Free State.

[1] Minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements in force at 13 November 1933. These are almost invariably typical or standard rates, except for trams, which pay in many cases rates considerably higher than the minimum rates quoted.

[2] 96s. per week.

[3] Plus " tool money " 2s. per week.

[4] " Height money rate " : over 50 ft., 1½d. per hour ; over 100 ft., 3d. per hour.

[5] " Dirty money " rate : 1s. 11d. per hour.

[6] Plus " tool money " 6d. per day.

[7] Plus " tool money " 3s. per week.

[8] 52s. to 75s. per week.

[9] Rates subject to a reduction of 7½ per cent.

Italy.

[1] Basic rates of wages (or minimum wages) for time or piece work, including cost-of-living bonus and other allowances, if any, in force on 1 July 1933.

[2] Actual wages at 1 July 1933.

Latvia.

[1] Weighted arithmetic mean of typical time rates of wages.

[2] Weighted arithmetic mean of earnings per hour worked.

Norway.

[1] Standard rates or average wages actually paid for time work, unless otherwise indicated (note [3]); for mechanical engineering, figures for February 1933. Figures in parentheses: guaranteed minima for piece workers.

[2] Average earnings per hour worked, for time and piece work; for mechanical engineering, figures for February 1933; for printing, figures for December 1932.

[3] Minimum time rates fixed by collective agreements. These rates are markedly lower than the rates actually in force.

[4] Average between the minimum time rates paid for day work by (*a*) the Norwegian Employers' Union and (*b*) employers not belonging to the Union. Machine minders also receive special allowances for the serving of machines.

[5] Generally Kr. 4 less per week than motor drivers.

[6] The earnings of piece workers are from 26 to 30 per cent. above the standard rates.

[7] Earnings per week for day work (statistics of the Printer's Trade Union): hand compositors: kr. 79.19; machine compositors: kr. 93.64; machine minders: kr. 79.19.

Netherlands.

[1] Time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements, or by Government or local authorities, according to employers' regulations or the scales in force. Generally they are minimum rates, but may nevertheless be considered as representing in most cases the rates currently applied. For transport, electric power distribution, and local authorities' labourers in Amsterdam, averages for 1932. Figures in parentheses: in Amsterdam and The Hague: average hourly wages earned by piece workers; in Utrecht, normal basic time rates for piece workers, according to employers' regulations; for mechanical engineering in Amsterdam, averages for the first six months of 1933.

[2] Average earnings per hour worked. For mechanical engineering in Utrecht, the figures take into account the cost of official public holidays and other holidays with pay.

[3] Earnings are about 2½ per cent. higher than the rates indicated.

[4] Rate for workers in the service of a private employer: Fl. 0.51.

[5] Rate in force since November 1933.

Poland.

[1] Average earnings per hour worked.

[2] Average earnings of all adult male workers in undertakings employing more than 20 workers, in each of the industries considered, in May 1933:

Industry	Katowitz	Lodz	Poznan	Warsaw
	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.
Mechanical engineering	0.86	0.83	0.87	1.26
Building: (*a*)	0.75	0.71	0.69	1.01
(*b*)	1.15	0.86	1.06	1.68
Furniture making	0.99	0.67	0.59	1.12
Printing and bookbinding	1.63	1.03	1.16	1.71
Food industry	—	0.94	1.15	1.10

(*a*) Building properly so called. (*b*) Building installations (gas, electricity, etc.)

Portugal.

[1] Predominant time rates of wages fixed individually by verbal agreement between employers and workers.

Sweden.

[1] Typical or predominant time rates of wages, unless otherwise indicated (note [3]). As the building workers had been on strike since March 1933 the rates given are taken from the collective agreements in force before that date.

[2] Average earnings per hour worked in 1932, for time and piece work, account being taken of the value of allowances in kind, etc. (averages calculated on the basis of the total remuneration of all workers during the year).

[3] Minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements.

[4] Approximate figures, in view of the seasonal and variable character of this industry.

Switzerland.

[1] Predominant time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements, salary scales, or other agreements, unless otherwise indicated (note [3]).

[2] Average of rates for various undertakings.

[3] Minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements.

[4] Minimum money wages per month, plus board and lodging: specialised workers, Frs. 170 in Basle, Frs. 160 in Berne, Frs. 180 in Zurich. Bakers' helpers, working independently, Frs. 140 in Berne, Frs. 160 in Zurich.

Notes to Table II (Hours of Work)

Information Received concerning Hours actually Worked

NUMBER OF HOURS ACTUALLY WORKED PER WEEK IN OCTOBER 1933

Industry	Estonia	Hungary	Poland
	Tallinn, Tartu	Budapest	Katowitz, Lodz, Poznan, Warsaw
Mechanical engineering	43.6	35–45	42.3
Building	48.0	40–56	42.0
Furniture making	42.1	47–51	41.7
Printing and bookbinding	45.7	37–48	42.9
Food industry: bakers	48.0	51	39.6
Transport:			
Trams and buses	48.0	48	48.1 [1]
Cartage	48.0	50–57	48.0 [1]
Railways	48.0	28–45	48.0 [1]
Electric power distribution	48.0	49	48.0 [1]
Local authorities	48.0	50	48.0 [1]

[1] Katowitz only.

For Estonia and Poland the figures are averages for all workers in the industry considered. For Hungary, the original statistics compute a weighted average of hours worked in each occupation; the figures given here represent the range for all the occupations covered by the enquiry.

Notes to the Table (Normal Hours of Work)

Australia.

[1] Bricklayers only; masons, 40 hours.

Denmark.

[1] 42 hours in January and December.

[2] Carpenters: 42 hours in January and December; joiners, 42 hours in January, November, and December.

[3] Painters working in buildings which are not yet in occupation: 42 hours in January, February, November, and December.

[4] Lorry drivers must be ready at the beginning of the working day.

United States.

[1] Bricklayers working only 3 days per week: 24 hours.

[2] 40 hours from June to August inclusive.

France.

[1] Lower figure: winter scale. Higher figure: summer scale.

Great Britain.

[1] Lower figure: winter scale. Higher figure: summer scale.

[2] Lower figure: winter scale (10 weeks). Higher figure: scale for the remainder of the year.

[3] Lower figure: scale for December and January. Higher figure: scale for the remainder of the year.

[4] General yard labourers; for workers employed on road construction and repairs, the figures are: 42¾-45½ hours in winter, 48 in summer.

[5] In the case of one of the local authorities of the County of London (out of 26 for which figures are available): 48 hours.

[6] In 5-day workshops: 46⅓ hours.

Hungary.

[1] Normal working hours for a large number or the majority of workers in the occupations considered.

Irish Free State.

[1] No fixed hours.

Italy.

[1] 42 hours in December and January; 54 hours in June and July.

Netherlands.

[1] Workers in the service of a private employer; for those in the service of a local authority, 48 hours.

Sweden.

[1] Approximate figure; about 200 hours per month.

[2] Approximate figure.

[3] Approximate figure; about 208 hours per month.

[4] For Malmö only.

[5] For Göteborg and Stockholm only.

Switzerland.

[1] Summer hours.

[2] Basle: 49 hours; Berne: 48 hours; Zurich: 50 hours. For Basle and Zurich, summer hours.

[3] Basle and Berne only.

[4] Zurich only.

APPENDIX

TABLE A

Table A below gives the cost of a " basket of provisions " in the national currency in the different towns covered by the enquiry into wages, and also averages of the various towns for each country.[1] These figures are based on the prices of 14 foodstuffs, communicated by the competent national or municipal statistical series, as a result of an enquiry carried out by the Office in connection with the wage enquiry.[2] A certain weight (the same for all towns) has been attached to each article so as to arrive at the cost of the " basket of provisions ".

These figures are not in any way offered as an exact and reliable measure of the cost of living in the various localities, but only as approximate coefficients of the cost of living (in terms of foodstuffs), for the purpose of giving a summary indication of the purchasing power of the wages given in the preceding statistics. To prevent any erroneous interpretation, the exact meaning and the limitations of these coefficients may be recalled.

In the first place, the cost-of-living coefficients are based only on the prices of important foodstuffs, and they express the purchasing power of the national currencies only over these foodstuffs. It may quite reasonably be admitted that this measure is fairly representative for foodstuffs in general, the prices of which tend to bear a certain fixed relation to each other; though even here important reservations must be made. But it is impossible to extend this measure directly to the aggregate of other goods and services of everyday use, as the purchasing power of the various national currencies is not necessarily the same over articles of clothing, heating and lighting, rent, and miscellaneous expenses as it is over foodstuffs. If these other articles could be included in the " basket of provisions ", so as to make it more representative of the aggregate consumption, the relations between these complete coefficients of the cost of living would be different from those based exclusively on the prices of foodstuffs. In some cases the difference might be appreciable.

In the second place, these cost-of-living coefficients, even considered strictly as an indication of purchasing power over foodstuffs, are at best only a very rough measuring rod. There is no guarantee that the quality of these articles is absolutely the same in all cases, so that the cost of the basket of provisions may be more or less affected by the fact that the articles selected are of a relatively higher or lower quality. These divergences in themselves may give a partial

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[1] For Great Britain it has not been possible to compute the cost of the basket of provisions for each town separately, the price data having been supplied only in the form of averages for 7 towns. The available figures for Germany, Finland, and Czechoslovakia are also given by way of supplementary information, although these countries are not included in the enquiry on wages.

[2] The detailed data on the prices of the different articles used for these calculations will be published in the next number of the *Review* under the title : " International Statistics of Retail Prices and Rents in 1933 ". For the composition of the basket of provisions, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 4, April 1933 : " An International Comparison of the Retail Prices of Certain Important Foodstuffs, July 1929 to October 1932 ", p. 532.

TABLE A. COST OF THE "BASKET OF PROVISIONS" OR COST-OF-LIVING COEFFICIENTS (FOR FOODSTUFFS) IN NATIONAL CURRENCIES IN OCTOBER 1933 [1]

Country and town	Currency unit	Cost of the basket of provisions
Germany : *6 towns*	RM.	*5.59* [2]
Berlin	"	5.60
Breslau	"	5.30 [2]
Cologne	"	5.77 [2]
Hamburg	"	5.46
Leipzig	"	5.61 [2]
Munich	"	5.94 [2]
Australia : Sydney	Penny	82.8 [2]
Austria : *3 towns*	Sch.	*10.11*
Graz	"	10.33
Linz	"	10.06
Vienna	"	9.95
Belgium : Kingdom	Fr.	35.53 [2]
Canada : *6 towns*	Cent	*157.0*
Halifax	"	163.4
Montreal	"	151.7
Ottawa	"	154.9
Toronto	"	157.7
Vancouver	"	165.1
Winnipeg	"	146.1
Denmark : Copenhagen	Kr.	4.98 [2]
Spain : *4 towns*	Pta.	*14.14* [2]
Barcelona	"	13.84
Bilbao	"	11.14 [2]
Madrid	"	12.54 [2]
Valencia	"	12.87 [2]
Estonia : *2 towns*	E. Kr.	*2.55* [2]
Tallinn	"	2.59 [2]
Tartu	"	2.51 [2]
United States : *10 towns*	Cent	*195.5*
Baltimore	"	196.1
Boston	"	198.5
Chicago	"	183.3
Denver	"	175.6
Los Angeles	"	203.7
New Orleans	"	193.2
New York	"	213.2
Philadelphia	"	195.7
St. Louis	"	182.6
San Francisco	"	207.3
Finland : Helsinki	F. Mk.	48.08
France : *6 towns*	Fr.	*37.25*
Bordeaux	"	36.66
Lille	"	38.59
Lyons	"	36.37
Marseilles	"	38.07
Nancy	"	34.38
Paris	"	39.37
Great Britain : *7 towns*	Penny	*77.0*
Hungary : Budapest	Pengö	5.72
Irish Free State : *3 towns*	Penny	*80.2*
Cork	"	79.1
Dublin	"	83.1
Dundalk	"	78.8
Italy : *6 towns* [3]	Lira	*29.19* [2]
Milan	"	29.64 [2]
Rome	"	31.82 [2]
Trieste	"	28.00 [2]
Turin	"	28.71
Latvia : Riga	Lat	4.61
Norway : Oslo	Kr.	5.58 [2]
Netherlands : *4 towns*	Fl.	*3.18*
Amsterdam	"	3.24
The Hague	"	3.48
Rotterdam	"	3.25 [2]
Utrecht	"	3.02
Poland : *4 towns*	Zloty	*6.27*
Katowitz	"	6.61 [2]
Lodz	"	5.88
Poznan	"	6.12
Warsaw	"	6.35
Portugal : *2 towns*	Esc.	*35.01*
Lisbon	"	38.49
Oporto	"	31.50 [2]
Sweden : *3 towns*	Kr.	*6.40*
Göteborg	"	6.58
Malmö	"	6.30
Stockholm	"	6.30
Switzerland : *3 towns*	Fr.	*7.52*
Basle	"	7.66
Berne	"	7.37
Zurich	"	7.49
Czechoslovakia : *3 towns*	Kč.	*37.86*
Bratislava	"	36.12
Brno	"	36.43
Prague	"	40.34

[1] Except for Australia (August 1933), Spain (Barcelona) (December 1933), Estonia and Italy (July 1933), France (except Paris) and the Irish Free State (November 1933).

[2] Cost calculated by using an estimate for one or two minor articles, based on prices in another town in the same country or prices in the same town at an earlier date.

[3] Including Florence and Genoa, for which the cost of the basket of provisions has not been calculated separately, in the absence of sufficiently complete data.

explanation of certain differences in the cost of the basket of provisions between towns in the same country, to which too much importance should not be attached; in the averages computed for the country as a whole they would have a tendency to cancel one another out. Lastly, as the quantity or "weight" attached to each article is the same for all towns, this uniform composition of the basket is not everywhere an equally accurate reflection of the current consumption habits; certain articles which are but little consumed in a given country — and are probably rather dear — will in fact have relatively too much importance in the basket of provisions, while others in more current use will be under-represented or altogether absent; in either case the result will be to exaggerate the total cost of the basket as compared with the cost in towns where the composition of the basket is a more accurate reflection of consumption habits.

These cost-of-living coefficients for the different towns can therefore not be used indiscriminately as a measure of purchasing power in general. Even with their signification restricted to foodstuffs, their reliability varies according to the countries or towns between which comparisons are being made. The greater the differences in the systems of prices and standards of living of the working classes, the less reliable will the comparisons be.

It should be added that the "basket of provisions" in question is merely a theoretical concept: it should in no circumstances be used as even a rough measure of either the minimum or the normal expenditure of a working-class family. If to some extent its *composition* (the relative importance assigned to each item) is based on the average consumption habits of the principal countries considered, its *volume* is purely arbitrary, since the number of articles included has been determined largely by the possibility of collecting prices regularly in the countries considered. The absolute amount of the cost of the basket of provisions in any particular town has therefore no intrinsic meaning; it is significant only in its relation to the similar coefficients computed for other towns or countries.

Lastly, the fact that at the present moment several of the national currencies are subject to fluctuations in the exchange rates prevents any importance from being attached to the value of the coefficients if expressed in a common currency at the rate of exchange at some given date.

The process for the use of these cost-of-living coefficients to determine approximately the purchasing power (over food) of wages is as follows. Each wage figure is divided directly by the cost-of-living coefficient for the corresponding town, both figures being expressed in the national currency. The quotient gives the number of times the wage in question can purchase the basket of provisions at the prices prevailing in the corresponding town. It may be noted that the absolute value of this figure, too, is meaningless; as the volume of the basket of provisions is arbitrary, the number of baskets that a given wage can buy is necessarily so also, and all that matters is the relation between these numbers, which are thus also merely coefficients — coefficients of the purchasing power of wages over foodstuffs. For convenience of comparison, and also to prevent false interpretations, it is thus convenient to express these coefficients in terms of one of them (the coefficient for one town or the average coefficient for a country); dividing each coefficient by the one chosen as base gives an index number of "real" wages.

TABLE B

Table B below gives the coefficients for the conversion into French francs of the national currencies of the different countries covered by the enquiry, at the average rate of exchange in 1933 and at their gold parity. The French franc has been chosen (in continuation of the similar table given in the appendix to the article analysing the results of the preceding enquiry for October 1932) as being one of the currencies still remaining stable into which the wage data for the different countries may be converted if it is wished to estimate their gold value from the standpoint of the cost of labour, considered as an element in the cost of production. The conversion is effected by multiplying the data in the national currency by the corresponding coefficient.

TABLE B. COEFFICIENTS FOR THE CONVERSION INTO FRENCH FRANCS OF THE CURRENCIES OF THE COUNTRIES COVERED BY THE ENQUIRY

Country	Currency unit	Coefficients of conversion		Country	Currency unit	Coefficients of conversion	
		Average rate of exchange in 1933	Gold parity			Average rate of exchange in 1933	Gold parity
Australia	s.	3.4	6.2	Hungary	Pengö	4.4	4.5
Austria	Sch.	2.8	3.6	Irish Free State	s.	4.2	6.2
Belgium	Fr.	0.7	0.7	Italy	Lira	1.3	1.3
Canada	$	18.7	25.5	Latvia	Lat	4.9	4.9
Denmark	Kr.	3.8	6.8	Norway	Kr.	4.3	6.8
Spain	Pta.	2.1	4.9	Netherlands	Fl.	10.3	10.3
Estonia	E.Kr.	5.6	6.8	Poland	Zl.	2.9	2.9
United States	$	20.6	25.5	Portugal	Esc.	0.8	1.1
France	Fr.	1.0	1.0	Sweden	Kr.	4.4	6.8
Great Britain	s.	4.2	6.2	Switzerland	Fr.	4.9	4.9

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used. [1] Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office; those marked with a dagger (†) will be reproduced or summarised in the *Industrial Safety Survey* published by the Office in English, French, and German.

LEGISLATION OF 1932

INTERNATIONAL

France-Yugoslavia.

* Ugovor o rada i pomoci izmedu Jugoslavije i Francuske. 29 jula 1932. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 274, p. 1319.)

[Treaty respecting labour and relief, between Yugoslavia and France. Signed in Paris on 29 July 1932.]

BELGIUM

Loi approuvant la Convention additionnelle à la Convention du 6 juillet 1912 relative à l'assurance contre les accidents du travail, signée à Bruxelles, le 16 juillet 1931, entre la Belgique et le Reich allemand. Du 23 juillet 1932. (Moniteur belge, 1932, No. 20, p. 316.)

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[1] List of principal abbreviations: A. N. = *Amtliche Nachrichten des Österreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung*; B. G. Bl. = *Bundesgesetzblatt*; B. M. T. = *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*; B. O. = *Bulletin Officiel*; C. S. R. = *Commonwealth Statutory Rules*; D. R. A. = *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*; Drj. Vest. = *Drjaven Vestnik*; Eph. Kyb. = *Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton)*; G. U. = *Gazzetta Ufficiale*; I. N. K. T. = *Izvestia Narodnogo Kommissariata Truda*; J. O. = *Journal Officiel*; Lik = *Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums*; R. A. Bl. = *Reichsarbeitsblatt*; R. d. T. = *Revue du Travail*; R. G. Bl. = *Reichsgesetzblatt*; S. R. & O. = *Statutory Rules and Orders*; Sb. z. a n. = *Sbirka zákonu a narizeni* (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); W. S. M. = *Wirtschaftliche und sozialstatistische Mitteilungen (Rapports économiques et statistique sociale)*; L. S. = *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1933

MANDATED TERRITORY

Palestine.

An Ordinance to consolidate and amend the law relating to co-operative societies. No. 50 of 1933. Signed 27 December 1933. (Palestine Gazette, 28 December 1933, p. 1918.)

Regulations made by the High Commissioner under section 65 of the Co-operative Societies Ordinance, 1933 : the Co-operative Societies Regulations, 1934. Dated 31 December 1933. (Supplement No. 2 to Palestine Gazette, 1 February 1934, p. 61.)

Regulations made by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies under section 64 of the Co-operative Societies Ordinance, 1933 : the Co-operative Societies (Forms and Returns) Regulations, 1934. Dated 31 December 1933. (Supplement No. 2 to Palestine Gazette, 1 February 1934, p. 72.)

INTERNATIONAL

Germany-Poland.

* Vereinbarung [über die Ergänzung und Änderung des deutsch-polnischen Vertrags über Sozialversicherung] vom 3. Oktober 1933. (R. G. Bl., II, 1934, No. 1, p. 1.)

ARGENTINA

Decreto núm. 33.026. — Creación de la "Junta Nacional de Desocupación". 19 de diciembre de 1933. (Boletín Oficial, 1933, No. 11867, p. 866.)

[Decree No. 33026, to establish a National Unemployment Board. Dated 19 December 1933.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth.

An Act to amend the Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act 1908-1933 in relation to claims of the Commonwealth against property of pensioners. No. 56 of 1933. Assented to 12 December 1933.

An Act to grant and apply out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund a sum for invalid and old-age pensions. No. 64. Assented to 15 December 1933.

Employees' Compensation Regulations. Regulation 18 inserted. Under the Commonwealth Employees' Compensation Act 1930. Dated 12 December 1933. (C. S. R. 1933, No. 141.)

Amendment of Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Regulations. Under the Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act 1908-1933. Dated 15 December 1933. (C. S. R., 1933, No. 144.)

Navigation (Master and Seamen) Regulation—Amendment of regulation 20. Under Navigation Act 1912-1926. Dated 16 December 1933. (C. S. R., 1933, No. 140.)

Papua.

An Ordinance to amend the " Native Labour Ordinance, 1911-1931 ". No. 11 of 1933. Assented to 6 December 1933.

An Ordinance to amend the " Immigration Restriction Ordinance, 1907-1925 ". No. 12 of 1933. Assented to 6 December 1933.

Queensland.

An Act relating to the stabilisation of dairy produce, to provide for the constitution of a Dairy Products Board, and for other purposes. 24 Geo. V, No. 14. Assented to 23 November 1933.

* An Act to amend "The Unemployed Workers' Insurance Acts, 1922 to 1930", in certain particulars. Assented to 7 December 1933. 24 Geo. V, No. 17. (Queensland Government Gazette, 13 December 1933, p. 1435.)

An Act to amend "The Medical Acts, 1925 to 1932" : "The Dental Acts, 1902 to 1931" ; "The Pharmacy Act of 1917" ; "The Opticians Act of 1917" ; and "The Nurses and Masseurs' Registration Act of 1928" in certain particulars. No. 31. Assented to 18 December 1933. (Queensland Government Gazette, 2 January 1934, p. 37.)

* An Act to enact special provisions relating to compensation to workers for lead poisoning contracted by such workers in the employment of Mount Isa Mines Limited, Mount Isa, and for purposes incidental thereto or consequent thereon. Assented to 21 December 1933. 24 Geo. V, No. 34. (Queensland Government Gazette, 2 January 1934, p. 77.)

Order in Council to declare that the provisions of section 5 A of the Unemployed Workers' Insurance Acts, 1922 to 1933, shall apply in respect of the employers of the following classes of workers : (*a*) persons working under a licence granted under clause 16 of the Schedule of "The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1932", (*b*) aged or infirm workers working under a permit granted under clause 18 of the Schedule of "The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1932". Dated 21 December 1933. (Queensland Government Gazette, 23 December 1933, p. 1670.)

AUSTRIA

* Ratifikation des Vertrages zwischen der Republik Österreich und dem Königreiche Jugoslawien über Sozialversicherung [vom 21. Juli 1931]. Vom 23. März 1933. (B. G. Bl. 1934. 5. Stück, p. 74.)

* Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 21. Dezember 1933 über die Abänderung des Bäckereiarbeitergesetzes. Nr. 570. (B. G. Bl., 1933, 178. Stück, p. 1492).

* Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 23. Dezember 1933, betreffend die Abänderung des Gesetzes über den freiwilligen Arbeitsdienst. Nr. 583. (B. G. Bl., 1933, 181. Stück, p. 1749.)

Verordnung der Bundesminister für Finanzen und für soziale Verwaltung vom 31. Dezember 1933, zur Durchführung des I. Abschnittes, § 8, des Bundesgesetzes vom 14. Juni 1929, B.G.Bl. Nr. 200, in der Fassung der Verordnung der Bundesregierungs vom 19. Mai 1933, B.G.Bl. Nr. 192 (VI. Wohnbauförderungsverordnung). Nr. 48. (B.G.Bl., 1934, 13. Stück, p. 109.)

BELGIUM

Arrêté royal prorogeant jusqu'au 31 janvier 1934 le délai d'appel en matière de pensions de vieillesse. Du 28 décembre 1933. (Moniteur belge, 1933, No. 364, p. 6500.)

Arrêté royal du 28 décembre 1933 : Application de la tutelle sanitaire des adolescents aux élèves des écoles professionnelles du jour. (Moniteur belge, 1934, No. 8-9, p. 120.)

Arrêté royal du 31 décembre 1933, concernant : Loi du 18 juin 1930 relative à l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré des employés. Arrêté royal du 8 juin 1931 portant règlement général pour l'exécution de la loi du 18 juin 1930. Modifications. (Moniteur belge, 1934, No. 5, p. 44.)

BELGIUM : COLONIES

Belgian Congo.

Ordonnance du 29 décembre 1933, No. 147 bis/A.E., portant règlement sur les installations électriques.

Verordening van 29 December 1933, no. 147 bis/E.Z., houdende reglement op de electrische installaties.

(Bull. admin. du Congo belge, 1934, No. 2, p. 23.)

Coquihatville.

Arrêté du 1er décembre 1933, No. 26, fixant le taux maximum [*sic*] de salaire à partir duquel le maître est exonéré de la remise de la couverture au travailleur.

Besluit van 1 December 1933, no. 26, het maximum loon vaststellende vanaf hetwelk de meester ontslagen is van de levering van het deken aan den arbeider.

(Bull. admin. du Congo belge, 1934, No. 1, p. 12.)

CANADA

New Brunswick.

* An Act to amend Chapter 35 of The Revised Statutes, 1927, respecting mines and minerals. 23 Geo. V, ch. 23. Dated 6 April 1933. (New Brunswick Acts, 1933, p. 55.)

CHILE

Decreto número 354 : modifica el Reglamento de la Caja de Retiro y Previsión Social de los Empleados Municipales. 1 de diciembre de 1933. (Diario Official, 1933, No. 16747, p. 3780.)

[Decree No. 354, to amend the rules of the Superannuation and Provident Fund for Municipal Employees. Dated 1 December 1933.]

CHINA

* † Regulations for the organisation of the Central Factory Inspection Office, issued by the Ministry of Industry of the Nankin National Government. Dated 29 September 1933.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

* Zákon ze dne 6. prosince 1933 o opatřeních pro zaměstnance zastavených periodických tiskopisů. Nr. 225. (Sb. z. a n., 1933, Částka 81, p. 992.)

[Act respecting measures for the benefit of employees of periodical publications which have been suspended. Dated 6 December 1933.]

DENMARK

Ordensreglement for Privatbanerne. Nr. 396. Den 19. December 1933. (Lovtidenden, A, No. 53, 1934, p. 2045.)

[Regulations No. 396, for private railways. Dated 19 December 1933.]

Bekendtgørelse angaaende Autorisation af Sygeplejersker i Henhold til Lov Nr. 140 af 20. April 1933. Nr. 401. Den 23. December 1933. (Lovtidenden, A, No. 53, 1934, p. 2085.)

[Notification No. 401 respecting the licensing of sick nurses under Act No. 140 of 26 April 1933. Dated 23 December 1933.]

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Ley número 597 ordenando que toda persona física o moral, y toda empresa que ejerza en la República actividades comerciales, industriales o agrícolas estará obligada a colocar dominicanos en proporción no menor de setenta por ciento del personal que utilice. 2 de noviembre de 1933. (Gaceta Oficial, 1933, No. 4623, p. 21.)

[Act No. 597, to require every individual or body corporate, and every undertaking engaged in commerce, industry, or agriculture in the Republic, to employ Dominicans in the proportion of at least 70 per cent. of the total staff. Dated 2 November 1933.]

FRANCE

* Décret du 18 décembre 1933 fixant les conditions d'assurance des marins du commerce et de leurs familles en ce qui concerne les risques de maladie et de maternité (assurances sociales). (J. O., 1934, No. 26, p. 1012.)

* Décret portant règlement d'administration publique modifiant le décret du 16 août 1924 relatif à l'application de la loi sur la journée de huit heures dans les bureaux, services administratifs et agences privées. Du 24 décembre 1933. (J. O., 1934, No. 2, p. 58.)

Décret du 24 décembre 1933 fixant le montant des majorations prévues par l'article 41 de la loi du 30 avril 1930 au profit des assurés facultatifs. (J. O., 1934, No. 3, p. 98.)

Décret du 29 décembre 1933 étendant aux offices d'habitations à bon marché la réglementation prévue pour les sociétés de crédit immobilier en ce qui concerne l'emploi des fonds libres. (J. O., 1934, No. 3, p. 99.)

Décret du 30 décembre 1933 appliquant à l'Algérie la loi du 16 mars 1928 modifiant l'article 98 du livre 1er du code du travail. (J. O., 1934, No. 5, p. 154.)

FRANCE: COLONIES, ETC.

French Equatorial Africa.

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 14 décembre 1931, sur la composition de la ration allouée aux travailleurs du C.F.C.O. Du 12 octobre 1933. (J. O., 1934, No. 2, p. 100.)

French Indo-China.

Arrêté fixant les conditions d'application des règlements concernant l'emploi des appareils à vapeur autres que ceux qui sont placés sur les bateaux. Du 27 juin 1933. (Bull. admin. de la Cochinchine, 1933, No. 29, p. 1635.)

Arrêté No. 2232 du Gouverneur général approuvant le DU [en date du 2 octobre 1933] de S. M. l'Empereur d'Annam réglementant les associations laïques formées en Annam entre les sujets de S. M. l'Empereur. Du 22 novembre 1933. (Bull. admin. de l'Annam, 1934, No. 23, p. 2158.)

Arrêté réglementant l'établissement de dépôts, les transports et les manutentions de liquides inflammables. Du 28 novembre 1933. (J. O. de l'Indochine française, 1933, No. 99, p. 4117.)

Arrêté relatif aux installations de transmission d'énergie électrique. Du 5 décembre 1933. (J. O. de l'Indochine française, 1933, No. 98, p. 4081.)

Arrêté modifiant l'article 1er de l'arrêté du 4 août 1932 portant organisation des services de l'Inspection générale du Travail et de la Direction des affaires économiques et administratives. Du 27 décembre 1933. (J. O. de l'Indochine française, 1933, No. 104 bis, p. 4408.)

French Somaliland.

Arrêté fixant les prescriptions spéciales de sécurité applicables à bord des navires à passagers ayant leur port d'attache dans la colonie. Du 9 décembre 1933. (J. O. des Somalis, 1933, No. 445, p. 277.)

Arrêté concernant les réservoirs souterrains destinés à emmagasiner des liquides inflammables. Du 30 décembre 1933. (J. O. des Somalis, 1933, No. 445, p. 280.)

Ivory Coast.

Arrêté No. 3547 p. étendant aux territoires de la Haute-Volta rattachés à la Côte d'Ivoire les dispositions des arrêtés réorganisant l'apprentissage agricole en Côte d'Ivoire. Du 31 décembre 1933. (J. O. de la Côte d'Ivoire, 1934, No. 2, p. 48.)

Madagascar.

Arrêté réglementant le fonctionnement des établissements pénitentiaires et le travail des détenus dans la colonie de Madagascar et Dépendances. Du 14 décembre 1933. (J. O. de Madagascar, 1934, No. 2491, p. 18.)

Arrêté complétant le tableau prévu à l'article 1er de l'arrêté du 19 novembre 1932 qui porte application du décret du 21 juin 1932 réglementant les conditions

d'admission et de séjour des français et des étrangers à Madagascar. Du 20 décembre 1933. (J. O. de Madagascar, 1933, No. 2488, p. 1132.)

Saint Pierre and Miquelon.

Arrêté du 21 août 1933 portant création d'un office du travail (31 août 1933). (J. O. de Saint-Pierre et Miquelon, Aug. 1933.)

GERMANY

* Bekanntmachung über die Ergänzung und Änderung des deutsch-polnischen Vertrags über Sozialversicherung. Vom 23. Dezember 1933. (R. G. Bl., II, 1934, No. 1, p. 1.)

GREAT BRITAIN : COLONIES, ETC.

Hong Kong.

An Ordinance to amend the law relating to merchant shipping. No. 28 of 1933. Assented to 22 December 1933. (Hong Kong Government Gazette, 22 December 1933, p. 879.)

Kenya.

An Ordinance to provide for the registration of architects and quantity surveyors. No. LX of 1933. Dated 29 December 1933. (Supplement to the Official Gazette, 30 December 1933, p. 460.)

An Ordinance to consolidate and amend the law relating to mining. No. LXI of 1933. Dated 30 December 1933. (Supplement to the Official Gazette, 30 December 1933, p. 467.)

Government Notice No. 112 under the Townships Ordinance, 1930 : the Townships (Waterworks) Rules, 1934. Dated 27 December 1933. (Supplement No. 6 to the Official Gazette, 6 February 1934, p. 115.)

Malay States (Federated).

An Enactment further to amend the Labour Code. No. 29 of 1933. Assented to 14 December 1933. (F.M.S. Government Gazette, 29 December 1933, p. 4359.)

An Enactment to provide for the privileges of dentists registered under "The Registration of Dentists Ordinance, 1933," of the Colony and for the disabilities of persons not so registered. No. 34 of 1933. Assented to 14 December 1933. (F.M.S. Government Gazette, 1934, No. 3, p. 235.)

Malay States (Non-Federated) : Johore.

An Enactment to amend further the Land Enactment, 1910, and to validate certain proceedings. Approved 28 December 1933. No. 14 of 1933. (Johore Government Gazette, 31 December 1933, p. 1379.)

Nigeria.

An Ordinance to amend the law relating to legal practitioners. No. 57. Assented to 7 December 1933. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 7 December 1933.)

An Ordinance to amend the Aliens Ordinance. No. 60. Assented to 7 December 1933. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 7 December 1933.)

Straits Settlements.

* An Ordinance to amend Ordinance No. 197 (Labour). No. 33 of 1933. Assented to 14 December 1933. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 22 December 1933, p. 2760.)

[*Inter alia*, repeals the Netherlands Indian Labourers' Protection Ordinance 1908.]

* Notification under the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance, 1932. No. 2498. Dated 4 December 1933. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 29 December 1933, p. 2936.)

Windward Islands : Grenada.

An Ordinance to provide for the establishment and location of small holdings and for other purposes connected therewith. Assented to 30 December 1933. No. 17 of 1933.

GUATEMALA

Reglamento del Decreto gubernativo Número 1474, fecha 31 de octubre del año en curso [Ley de Vialidad]. 19 de diciembre de 1933. (Diario de Centro América, 1933, Vol. IX, No. 40, p. 157.)

[Regulations under Government Decree No. 1474 dated 31 October 1933 (Road Act). Dated 19 December 1933.]

INDIA

Bombay.

Notification No. 9721, 7 December 1933 : amendment in the Bombay Maternity Benefit Rules, 1929, published in Government Notification, General Department, No. 1066, dated 2 August 1929. (Labour Gazette, December 1933, p. 264.)

IRISH FREE STATE

* Acht chun eifeachta do thabhairt do Dhrescht Chonvensiuin le n-ar ghlac an Chodhall Cheneralta de Cho-ghleasa Idir-naisiunta an Oibreachais fe Chumann ne Naisiun agus a bhaineann, fe seach, le cuiteamh alos diomhacintis i gGas na luinge do chailliuint no do bhathadh, leis en aois mhinimum chun dacine oga d'fhostu mar lucht feistithe guail no mar theineadoiri, agus le scrudu eigeanta dochtura ar leanbhai agus ar dhaoine oga ar festu ar muir, agus chun na nAchtanna Loingis Cheannaiochta, 1894 go 1932, do leasu sa mheid gur ga san chun eifeachta do thabhairt do sna Convensiuin sin. Uimhir 29 de 1933. 22adh Lunasa, 1933.

An Act to give effect to Draft Conventions adopted by the General Conference of the International Labour Organisation of the League of Nations relating respectively to unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship, the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers, and the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea, and to amend the Merchant Shipping Acts, 1894 to 1932, in so far as is necessary to give effect to the said Conventions. No. 29 of 1933. Dated 22 August 1933.

ITALY

Regio decreto-legge 19 ottobre 1933, n. 1594. Provvedimenti a favore di marittimi inscritti alla Cassa invalidi della marina mercantile. (G. U., 1933, No. 284, p. 5574.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1594, to make provision for the benefit of seamen registered with the Mercantile Marine Invalidity Fund. Dated 19 October 1933.]

Regio decreto-legge 19 ottobre 1933, n. 1595. Trattamento di riposo al personale delle Aziende esercenti servizi marittimi sovvenzionati. (G. U., 1933, No. 284, p. 5577.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1595, respecting superannuation allowances for the employees of undertakings engaged in subsidised maritime services. Dated 19 October 1933.]

Regio decreto-legge 14 dicembre 1933, n. 1773. Accertamento dell' idoneità fisica della gente di mare di la categoria. (G. U., 1934, No. 4, p. 54.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1773, respecting the ascertainment of the physical fitness of seamen in class 1. Dated 14 December 1933.]

Regio decreto-legge 14 dicembre 1933, n. 1901. Estensione delle norme del Regio decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1554, relative alla liquidazione dei Consorzi e delle Associazioni di cooperative, agli enti di consumo eretti in corpo morale. (G. U., 1934, No. 20, p. 347.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1901, to extend to incorporated consumers' societies the provisions of Legislative Decree No. 1554 of 13 August 1926, respecting the winding-up of compulsory associations and federations of co-operative societies. Dated 14 December 1933.]

Regio decreto 4 dicembre 1933, n. 1792. Approvazione della Convenzione per il risarcimento dei danni cagionati dalle malattie professionali, adottata dalla Conferenza generale dell' Organizzazione internazionale del lavoro nella sua VII[a] Sessione (Ginevra, 10 giugno 1925). (G. U., 1934, No. 7, p. 130.)

[Royal Decree No. 1792, to ratify the Convention concerning compensation for occupational diseases adopted by the General Conference of the International Labour Organisation at its Seventh Session (Geneva, 10 June 1925). Dated 4 December 1933.]

Regio decreto 21 dicembre 1933, n. 1813. Modificazione della circoscrizione dei Compartimenti di assicurazione contro gli infortuni sul lavoro in agricoltura. (G. U., 1934, No. 9, p. 166.)

[Royal Decree No. 1813, to alter the boundaries of the areas for industrial accident insurance in agriculture. Dated 21 December 1933.]

Decreto Ministeriale 30 dicembre 1933. Passaggio all' Istituto nazionale fascista per l'assicurazione contro gli infortuni sul lavoro delle funzioni disimpegnate degli organi del Sindacato obbligatorio siciliano di mutua assicurazione per gli infortuni sul lavoro nelle miniere di zolfo della Sicilia (S.O.S.I.S.). (G. U., 1934, No. 10, p. 184.)

[Ministerial Decree respecting the transference to the Fascist National Industrial Accident Insurance Institution of the functions exercised by the officials of the Sicilian Compulsory Association for Mutual Insurance against Industrial Accidents in the Sicilian Sulphur Mines (S.O.S.I.S.). Dated 30 December 1933.]

NETHERLANDS

Wet van den 14den December 1933, tot verdere tijdelijke afwijking van het bepaalde in artikel 9, eerste lid, der Ouderdomswet 1919 en in artikel VIII, tweede lid, der wet van 13 Juli 1923 (Staatsblad no. 353) tot wijziging der Ouderdomswet 1919. (Staatsblad, 1933, No. 686.)

[Act to provide for a further temporary exception to the provisions of section 9 (1) of the Old-Age Act, 1919, and section VIII (2) of the Act of 13 July 1923 (Staatsblad No. 353), to amend the Old-Age Act, 1919. Dated 14 December 1933.]

Besluit van den 30sten December 1933, tot verdeeling van het Rijk in districten ten behoeve van den dienst der arbeidsinspectie. (Staatsblad, 1933, No. 807.)

[Decree to divide the Kingdom into labour inspection districts. Dated 30 December 1933.]

NETHERLANDS: COLONIES

Dutch East Indies.

Ordonnantie: Wijziging van eenige ordonnanties in verband met de samenvoeging van de Arbeidsinspectie voor de Buitengewesten en die voor Java en Madoera. 22sten December 1933. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1933, No. 511.)

[Ordinance to amend certain Ordinances in pursuance of the amalgamation of the Labour Inspectorate for the Outer Provinces and that for Java and Madoera. Dated 22 December 1933.]

NEW ZEALAND

An Act to extend the duration of the Immigration Restriction Amendment Act, 1931. 24 Geo. V, No. 28. Dated 18 December 1933.

POLAND

* Obwieszczenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 25 października 1933 r. w sprawie ogłoszenia jednolitego tekstu ustawy z dnia 18 grudnia 1919 r. o czasie pracy w przemyśle i handlu. Poz. 734. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 94, p. 1784.)

[Notification respecting the promulgation of the consolidated text of the Act of 18 December 1919, respecting hours of work in industry and commerce. Dated 25 October 1933.]

* Obwieszczenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 25 października 1933 r. w sprawie ogłoszenia jednolitego tekstu ustawy z dnia 16 maja 1922 r. o urlopach dla pracowników zatrudnionych w przemyśle i handlu. Poz. 785. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 94, p. 1787.)

[Notification respecting the promulgation of a consolidated text of the Act of 16 May 1922, respecting annual leave for persons employed in industry and commerce. Dated 25 October 1933.]

* Rozporządzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 27 października 1933 r. Kodeks Zobowiązań. Poz. 598. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 82, p. 1449.)

[Order to promulgate the Code of Obligations. Dated 27 October 1933.]

* Rozporządzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 27 października 1933. Przepisy wprowadzające kodeks zobowiązań. Poz 599. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 82, p. 1493.)

[Order to issue provisions for bringing the Code of Obligations into operation. Dated 27 October 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 28 października 1933 r. w sprawie zmiany ustawy o zaopatrzeniu inwalidzkiem. Poz. 669. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 86, p. 1696.)

[Order to amend the Act respecting provision for disabled persons. Dated 28 October 1933.]

Oświadczenie Rządowe z dnia 9 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie wymiany dokumentów ratyfikacyjnych umowy między Polską a Niemcami o małym ruchu granicznym, podpisanej wraz z protokółem końcowym oraz załączinkami I i II w Warszawie dnia 22 grudnia 1931 r. Poz. 772. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 101, p. 1989.)

[Notification respecting the exchange of the instruments of ratification of the Treaty between the Republic of Poland and the German Reich respecting special facilities for minor frontier traffic, signed (together with the final protocol and annexes I and II) on 22 December 1931, in Warsaw. Dated 9 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 19 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie częściowego uchylenia postanowień art. 71 ust. 2 ustawy z dnia 17 marca 1932 r. o zaopatreniu inwalidzkiem. Poz. 784. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2021.)

[Order to repeal in part the provisions of the second paragraph of section 71 of the Act of 17 March 1932, respecting provision for disabled persons. Dated 19 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie wejścia w życie ustawy o ubezpieczeniu społecznem. Poz. 789. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2023.)

[Order respecting the coming into operation of the Social Insurance Act. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie wykonania art. 223 ust. (1) ustawy o ubezpieczeniu społecznem. Poz. 790. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2023.)

[Order respecting the administration of the first paragraph of section 223 of the Social Insurance Act. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie uprawnień osób, które były ubezpieczone na zasadzie dotychczas obowiązujących ustaw o ubezpieczeniu na wypadek inwalidztwa, śmierci i na starość. Poz. 791. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2023.)

[Order respecting the rights of persons who have been insured against invalidity, old age, and death under the Insurance Acts hitherto in force. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie uprawnień osób ubezpieczonych oraz korzystających ze świadczen na zasadzie dotychczas obowiązujących ustaw o obezpieczeniu od wypadków. Poz. 792. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2025.)

[Order respecting the rights of persons who have been insured and are entitled to benefit under the Accident Insurance Acts hitherto in force. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie ubez-

pieczenia od wypadrów drobnych producentów rolnych i ich rodzin na obszarze województw poznańskiego i pomorskiego oraz górnośląskiej części województwa śląskiego. Poz. 793. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2027.)

[Order respecting the accident insurance of small-scale producers in agriculture and their families in the territory of the provinces of Poznan and Pomorze and the Upper Silesian part of the province of Silesia. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 27 grudnia 1933 r. o uchyleniu grup narobkowych w ubezpieczeniu pracowników umysłowych. Poz. 794. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 102, p. 2029.)

[Order respecting the cancellation of the salary classes in insurance for intellectual workers. Dated 27 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemysłu i Handlu o sposobie uiszczania przez pracodawców wartości kapitałowych rent wypadkowych, przejętych przez Zakład ubezpieczenia od wypadków. Poz. 810. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2055.)

[Order respecting the procedure for the payment by employers of the capital value of accident pensions taken over by the Accident Insurance Institution. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28, grudnia 1933 r. o trybie postępowania w sprawach o świadczenia wypadkowe w przypadku zachorowania na chorobę zawodową. Poz. 811. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2056.)

[Order respecting the procedure in cases respecting accident benefit to persons suffering from industrial diseases. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. w sprawie zaopatrzen inwalidzkich dla robotników oraz członków ich rodzin. Poz. 812. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2057.)

[Order respecting invalidity benefit for wage earners and their families. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. o sposobie wydawania lekow przez ubezpieczalnie społeczne poza aptekami. Poz 814. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2058.)

[Order respecting the supply of medicaments by social insurance funds otherwise than through pharmacies. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. o dopłatach za porady lekarskie, lekarstwa, środki lecznicze, pomocnicze i zabiegi lecznicze. Poz. 815. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2059.)

[Order respecting additional allowances for medical advice, medicaments, dressings, appliances, and medical attendance. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. o wzajemnych stosunkach i współpracy szpitali publicznych i ubezpieczalni społecznych oraz Zakladu Ubezpieczenia na Wypadek Choroby. Poz. 816. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2061.)

[Order respecting the mutual legal relations and co-operation of public hospitals and the social insurance funds and Sickness Insurance Institution. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. w porozumieniu z Ministrem Komunikacji o przekazaniu Kasie Emerytalnej dla robotników Kolei Państwowych w b. dzielnicy pruskiej w Poznaniu, wykonywania w zastosowaniu do członków tej Kasy czynności Zakładu Ubezpieczenia Emerytalnego Robotników. Poz. 817. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2062.)

[Order respecting the delegation to the Railwaymen's Pension Fund in Posen for the State Railway in former Prussian Territory of the transactions of the Wage-Earning Employees' Pension Institution on behalf of members of the first-mentioned Fund. Dated 28 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 28 grudnia 1933 r. o sposobie dokonywania zgłoszeń w zakresie ubezpiecseń społecznych, uiszczaniu składek i kontroli czynności pracodawców. Poz. 818. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2062.)

[Order respecting the procedure for registration for social insurance purposes, the payment of contributions and supervision of the performance by employers of their duties. Dated 28 December 1933.]

* Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 29 grudnia 1933 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemysłu i Handlu w sprawie zastosowania ustawy o ubezpieczeniu społecznem do osób, zatrudnionych w żegludze morskiej). Poz. 1. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1934, No. 1, p. 1.)

[Order respecting the application of the Social Insurance Act to persons employed in maritime navigation. Dated 29 December 1933.]

Rozporządzenie Ministra Opieki Społecznej z dnia 30 grudnia 1933 r. o przekształceniu się kas chorych na ubezpieczalnie społeczne i ustaleniu okręgow i siedzib ubezpieczalni. Poz. 819. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1933, No. 103, p. 2091.)

[Order respecting the transformation of the sickness funds into social insurance funds and respecting the areas and headquarters of the said funds. Dated 30 December 1933.]

RUMANIA

Deciziune Ministerului Muncii nr. 87.863 din 24 Noemvrie 1933 : clasificarea atelierelor de croitorie şi ceaprăzărie, în rândul industriilor insalubre de cl. I. (Monitorul Oficial, 1934, No. 24, p. 556.)

[Order No. 87863, to classify workshops in the tailoring and textile smallwares trades among unhealthy undertakings in class I. Dated 24 November 1933.]

Deciziune Ministerului Muncii nr. 84.850 din 20 Decemvrie 1933 : considerarea depozitelor pentru fermentarea tutunului, ca industrii sezoniers. (Monitorul Oficial, 1934, No. 24, p. 556.)

[Order No. 84850, to classify tobacco-leaf fermenting sheds as seasonal undertakings. Dated 20 December 1933.]

SWITZERLAND

Geneva.

Arrêté du Conseil d'Etat en date du 23 décembre 1933 tendant à retrancher de la nomenclature des jours fériés qui, aux termes de la loi fédérale sur les fabriques, doivent être assimilés au dimanche dans le canton de Genève, le jour de l'élection du Conseil d'Etat. Du 23 décembre 1933. (Feuille d'Avis, 1934, No. 16, p. 217.)

URUGUAY

Decreto. Se establecen disposiciones para la organización y el mantenimiento del "Registro de Obreros Estibadores de Carbón y Sal". 18 de diciembre de 1933. (Diario Oficial, 1933, No. 8209, p. 564-A.)

[Decree to issue regulations for the establishment and maintenance of the register of dockers handling coal and salt. Dated 18 December 1933.]

Decreto. Se modifican disposiciones sobre descanso de patrones de establecimientos comerciales e industriales. 18 de diciembre de 1933. (Diario Oficial, 1933, No. 8209, p. 564-A.)

[Decree to amend the provisions respecting the weekly rest of employers in commercial and industrial establishments. Dated 18 December 1933.]

YUGOSLAVIA

Zakon o pensionom osiguranju službenika. 30 oktobra 1933. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 264, p. 1281.)

[Act respecting pension insurance for salaried employees. Dated 30 October 1933.]

Zakon o Ugovoru o radu i pomoći sa prilozima, zaključenom i potpisanom u Parizu, 29 jula 1932 godine izmedu Kraljevine Jugoslavije i Republike Francuske. 17 novembra 1933 g. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 274, p. 1318.)

[Act respecting the Treaty concerning labour and relief, concluded and signed in Paris on 29 July 1932, between the Kingdom of Yugoslavia and the French Republic. Dated 17 November 1933.]

Pravilnik o osiguranju učenika protiv nesrečnih slučajeva. 6 novembra 1933 g. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 269, p. 1310.)

[Regulations for the accident insurance of pupils in (technical) schools. Dated 6 November 1933.]

Izmene i dopu ne pravilniku o službenicima rečne plovidbe. 15 novembra 1933 g. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 273, p. 1318.)

[Amendments and additions to the Regulations respecting persons employed in inland navigation. Dated 15 November 1933.]

Uredba o smanjenju režije privrednih preduzeća. 22 novembra 1933 g. (Zbirka Zakona, 1933, Heft XI, No. 258, p. 1265.)

[Order respecting the reduction of the expenses of management of industrial undertakings. Dated 22 November 1933.]

LEGISLATION OF 1934

MANDATED TERRITORY

French Togoland.

Arrêté No. 21 portant création d'une commission permanente du chômage. Du 10 janvier 1934. (J. O., 1934, No. 246, p. 115.)

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Verordnung über die Festsetzung des Voranschlags der Träger der Sozialversicherung für 1934. Vom 4. Januar 1934. Nr. 3. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1934, No. 2, p. 4.)

Verordnung über Errichtung eines Landesausschusses für Zahnärzte, Zahntechniker und Krankenkassen. Vom 4. Januar 1934. Nr. 4. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1934, No. 2, p. 4.)

Ausführungsverordnung zur Verordnung über die Zusammensetzung der Organe der Versicherungsträger usw. vom 25. Juli 1933 (G. Bl. S. 349). Vom 4. Januar 1934. Nr. 5. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1934, No. 2, p. 5.)

Verordnung über Prüfung der Geschäfts-, Rechnungs- und Betriebsführung der Krankenkassen. Vom 4. Januar 1934. Nr. 6. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1934, No. 2, p. 5.)

Verordnung über Änderung des Arbeitsvermittlungsgesetzes. Vom 5. Januar 1934. Nr. 2. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1934, No. 2, p. 3.)

GERMANY

* Gesetz zur Ordnung der nationalen Arbeit. Vom 20. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No 7, p. 45.)

Gesetz über Kassenvereinigungen in der Krankenversicherung. Vom 16. Februar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 17, p. 93.)

* Gesetz über die Feiertage. Vom 27. Februar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 22, p. 129.)

Gesetz über die Versorgung der Kämpfer für die nationale Erhebung. Vom 27. Februar 1933. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 22, p. 133.)

Verfahrensordnung für die Berufsgerichte der Presse. Vom 18. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 6, p. 37.)

Vierte Verordnung über Geschäftsberichte der Versicherungsämter und Oberversicherungsämter. Vom 24. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 9, p. 61.)

Verordnung über den Zusammenschluss der Fischindustrie. Vom 26. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 9, p. 64.)

Verordnung zur Durchführung des Gesetzes über Pächterschutz. Vom 26. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No 12, p. 77.)

Zweite Verordnung zur Änderung der Ausführungsvorschriften zur Verordnung über den freiwilligen Arbeitsdienst. Vom 27. Januar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 9, p. 72.)

Vierte Verordnung zur Neuordnung der Krankenversicherung. Vom 3. Februar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 14, p. 84.)

Zweite Verordnung über die Herstellung von Knallkorken. Vom 6. Februar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 15, p. 88.)

Zweite Verordnung über die Vertretung wirtschaftlicher Vereinigungen in der knappschaftlichen Versicherung. Vom 23. Februar 1934. (R. G. Bl., I, 1934, No. 21, p. 126.)

ITALY

* Legge 22 gennaio 1934, n. 76. Autorizzazione al Governo del Re a pubblicare le norme per la decisione delle controversie individuali del lavoro. (G. U., 1934, No. 30, p. 573.)

[Act No. 76, to authorise H.M. Government to promulgate the rules for the settlement of individual disputes respecting employment. Dated 22 January 1934.]

* Legge 5 febbraio 1934, n. 163. Costituzione e funzioni delle Corporazioni. (G. U., 1934, No. 42, p. 869.)

[Act No. 163, respecting the formation and work of the corporations. Dated 5 February 1934.]

Regio Decreto 3 gennaio 1934, n. 18. Norme per l'esecuzione e l'integrazione del R. decreto-legge 11 dicembre 1933, n. 1699, recante nuove disposizioni per l'industria zolfifera nazionale. (G. U., 1934, No. 20, p. 348.)

[Royal Decree No. 18, to issue rules for the administration of Legislative Decree No. 1699 of 11 December 1933, issuing new provisions respecting the Italian sulphur industry and to supplement the said Legislative Decree. Dated 3 January 1934.

Decreto Ministeriale 16 gennaio 1934. Determinazione dei capoluoghi dei singoli Compartimenti di assicurazione obbligatoria contro gli infortuni sul lavoro in agricoltura. (G. U., 1934, No. 22, p. 410.)

[Ministerial Decree to specify the chief towns of the various districts for purposes of compulsory industrial accident insurance in agriculture. Dated 16 January 1934.]

SWITZERLAND

Geneva.

Loi d'application dans le canton de Genève de la loi fédérale [du 26 mars 1931] sur le séjour et l'établissement des étrangers. Du 21 février 1934. (Feuille d'avis, 1934, No. 47, p. 671.)

Arrêté du Conseil d'Etat en date du 20 janvier 1934 décrétant la fermeture générale et obligatoire des magasins d'horlogerie-bijouterie-orfèvrerie le dimanche toute la journée. (Feuille d'Avis, 1934, No. 24, p. 329.)

Arrêté législatif invitant le Conseil d'Etat à prendre dans l'avenir toutes mesures utiles pour garantir la liberté de réunion et la protection des citoyens qui participent aux assemblées légalement convoquées. Du 10 février 1934. (Feuille d'avis, 1934, No. 38, p. 518.)

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 126 : Regulations under the Apprenticeship Act. — Amendment. Dated 2 February 1934.

Goewernmentskennisgewing no. 126 : Regulasies ingevolge die " Vakleerlingen Wet ". Wysiging. 2 Februarie 1934.

(Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 2 February 1933, p. 284.)

Government Notice No. 166. South African Railways and Harbours : Regulations with respect to the constitution, functions and procedure of the conciliation board. Dated 9 February 1934.

Goewernmentskennisgewing no. 166 : Suid-Afrikaanse Spoorwee en Hawens : Regulasies met betrekking tot die samestelling, funksies en prosedure van die versoeningsraad. 9 Februarie 1934.

(Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 9 February 1934, p. 324.)

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. ***Maintenance of the Rights in Course of Acquisition and the Acquired Rights of Migrant Workers under Invalidity, Old-Age and Widows' and Orphans' Insurance.*** International Labour Conference, Eighteenth Session, Geneva, 1934. Fourth Item on the Agenda. Report IV. First Discussion. Geneva, 1934. VIII + 224 pp.

It will be remembered that at its 1933 Session the Conference adopted six Draft Conventions concerning invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance. These Conventions do not cover the maintenance of migrant workers' rights, the Conference having decided to postpone the consideration of that question until this year, in view of the number and complexity of the problems involved in the drafting of an international scheme for dealing with it. The subject is therefore being considered, on first discussion, at the Session of June 1934.

The report now issued contains an analysis of those provisions of national legislation and bilateral treaties which relate to the maintenance of migrants' pension insurance rights, both acquired and in course of acquisition. This analysis leads to certain conclusions as to the problems which might be dealt with by an international scheme, and from the analysis and the conclusions a list is submitted of the points on which it is considered that the Conference should request the Office to consult Governments in preparation for the second and decisive stage of the discussion, in 1935.

—— ***Methods of Providing Rest and Alternation of Shifts in Automatic Sheet-Glass Works.*** International Labour Conference, Eighteenth Session, Geneva, 1934. Third Item on the Agenda. Report III. Geneva, 1934. 69 pp.

The question of methods of providing rest and alternation of shifts in automatic sheet-glass works passed through the first stage of the double-discussion procedure last year, when the Conference settled the points on which Governments should be consulted prior to the second and final discussion this year. The report now published contains the replies of the Governments, an analysis of those replies, and a proposal for a Draft Convention based on them.

—— ***Reduction of Hours of Work.*** International Labour Conference, Eighteenth Session, Geneva, 1934. First Item on the Agenda. Report I. Geneva, 1934. 215 pp.

It will be recalled that the question of hours of work in relation to unemployment was the subject of a preliminary survey by a Tripartite Preparatory Conference in January 1933, and passed through the first stage of the double-discussion procedure at the general Session of the International Labour Conference in the following June. At that Session it was decided that the matter was a suitable one for a Draft Convention or Recommendation, and a number of points on which Governments should be consulted were laid down.

The report now issued, in preparation for the second discussion in June 1934, contains the replies of the Governments on those various points, a general survey of the problem in the light of the replies, the conclusions drawn from the survey, and the texts of two proposed Draft Conventions concerning the forty-hour week in industry and in commerce and offices, a draft Recommendation concerning the maintenance of the standard of living in the case of a reduction in hours of work, and a draft Resolution on technological unemployment.

—— ***Unemployment Insurance and Various Forms of Relief for the Unemployed.*** International Labour Conference, Eighteenth Session, Geneva, 1934. Second Item on the Agenda. Report II. Geneva, 1934. 187 pp.

This report contains the replies received from 26 Governments to the Questionnaire on unemployment insurance and various forms of relief for the unemployed which was issued after the first discussion, last year, together with the texts of a proposed Draft Convention and a draft Recommendation put forward as bases for the final decisions of the Conference this year.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. *Census of the Commonwealth of Australia, 30 June 1933.* Census Bulletin No. 2. *Population and Dwellings in Local Government Areas.* Canberra. 23 pp.

—— *Labour Report, 1932.* No. 23. Canberra, 1934. 167 pp. 6d.

BRAZIL

Ministerio do Trabalho. Departamento Nacional de Estatistica. *O Ministerio do Trabalho no Governo provisorio 1932-1933.* Exposição do Ministro SALGADO FILHO. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. 177 pp., illustr., diagrams.

CANADA

Department of Immigration and Colonisation. *Report for the Fiscal Year ended 31 March 1933.* Ottawa, 1934. 92 pp. 25 cents.

Department of Trade and Commerce. Dominion Bureau of Statistics. General Statistics Branch. *Annual Review of Employment in Canada 1933.* Ottawa, 1933. 22 pp.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Státnúrad Statisticky. *Statistická Ročenka Republiky Československé 1934.* Prague, 1934. 35 koruny.

Ustredni Socialni Pojistovna. *Statistika invalidního a starobního pojisteni a nemocnosti delniku za léta 1927-1928. Statistik der Invaliden- und Altersversicherung und der Morbidität der Arbeiter für die Jahre 1927 und 1928. Statistique d'assurance-invalidité et vieillesse et statistique de la morbidité des ouvriers pour les années 1927 et 1928.* Prague, 1933. 127 pp.

FRANCE

Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. *Rapport au Président de la République française sur l'application générale de la loi du 9 avril 1898 relative aux accidents du travail, sur la situation des sociétés d'assurances régies par ladite loi et sur le fonctionnement du fonds de garantie. Années 1929, 1930 et 1931.* Paris, 1933. 29 pp. 4 frs.

GERMANY

Arbeiten aus dem Reichsgesundheitsamte. Sechsundsechzigster Band, Viertes (Schluss-) Heft. Berlin, Julius Springer, 1933. Pp. 513-680.

Hauptstelle der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung. *Stand der Arbeitslosigkeit am 16. Juni 1933 nach den Meldungen der Arbeitsämter.* Berlin, 1933. XI + 119 pp.

Contains the results of an enquiry carried out on 16 June 1933 at the time of the general census of the population of Germany with the object of completing the current statistics of unemployment. The data collected show the occupation, age, and sex of the unemployed registered at that date at the employment exchanges, for the whole country and by district, and the occupational status of the workers in receipt of unemployment insurance benefit, emergency benefit, and local assistance.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Trade. *Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom for each of the Fifteen Years 1913 and 1919 to 1932.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. xv + 413 pp. 6s. 6d.

Department of Overseas Trade. *Economic Conditions in the Republic of Uruguay 1933.* Report by A. Murray SIMPSON. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 48 pp. 1s. 6d.

—— *Economic Conditions in Switzerland (Dated December 1933).* Report by Dr. H. C. A. CARPENTER. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 63 pp. 2s.

Home Office. *Workmen's Compensation. Statistics of Compensation and Proceedings under the Workmen's Compensation Acts and the Employers' Liability Act 1880, in Great Britain during the Year 1932.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 32 pp. 6d.

Medical Research Council. *Housing Conditions and Respiratory Disease. Morbidity in a Poor-Class Quarter and in a Rehousing Area in Glasgow.* By C. M. SMITH. Special Report Series, No. 192. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 36 pp. 9d.

—— **Industrial Health Research Board.** *Incentives in Repetitive Work. A Practical Experiment in a Factory.* By S. WYATT. Assisted by L. FROST and F. G. L. STOCK. Report No. 69. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. iv + 59 pp. 1s. 3d.

Methodical study of incentives in repetitive work (method of payment, type of work, personal factors) based on the observation of workers employed in a factory in wrapping, packing, and weighing chocolates and toffee. The experiment was carried out over a period of 54 weeks and covered ten workers (girls) aged between 15 and 16 years.

Ministry of Labour. *Clerical and Secretarial Work (Women).* Choice of Career Series No. 19 (Secondary Schools). London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 14 pp. 3d.

Contains useful and authoritative information on the general preliminary training of girls for clerical work and the more advanced training for the higher branches of secretarial work. The prospects in both private and commercial employment and the qualifications required are indicated.

—— **National Advisory Council for Juvenile Employment (England and Wales).** *Fifth Report. Provision of Courses of Instruction for Unemployed Boys and Girls.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934. 21 pp. 4d.

This report was analysed in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XLIX, No. 12, 19 March 1934, pages 400-409.

The Registrar-General's Statistical Review of England and Wales for the year 1932. (New Annual Series, No. 12.) *Tables.* Part I. *Medical.* iii + 405 pp. 6s. Part II. *Civil.* iv + 124 pp. 2s. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1934.

JAPAN

Shoko Daijin Kambo Tokei-Ka. Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Statistical Section. *Shoko Sho Tokei Hyo. Statistical Tables 1932 (Commerce, Industry, Mining, Commercial and Industrial Organisations, Prices and Wages, Patents).* Tokyo, 1933. 223 pp.

LUXEMBURG

Office de Statistique. *Aperçu statistique.* Extrait de l'*Annuaire officiel 1934.* Luxemburg, 1934. 112 pp.

NETHERLANDS

Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Bureau central de statistique. *Overzicht van den omvang en den voornaamsten inhoud der Collectieve Arbeidsovereenkomsten*

in Nederland op 1 Juni 1933. Aperçu de l'étendue et du contenu principal des conventions collectives aux Pays-Bas au 1er juin 1933. The Hague, 1934.

Ongevallenstatistiek. Betreffende het Kalenderjaar 1931 samengesteld ter voldoening aan de bepaling van Artikel 9 der wet op de Rijksverzekeringsbank. Amsterdam, 1933. 268 pp.

Verslag omtrent de bemoeiingen der gemeente Amsterdam in Arbeidszaken en de verzekering tegen werkloosheid in 1932. Amsterdam, 96 pp.

Annual report for 1932 on the activities of the Amsterdam municipal authorities for the relief of the unemployed.

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel. Centraal Kantoor voor de Statistiek. *Indisch Verslag 1933.* II. *Statistisch Jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië over het jaar 1932. Indian Report 1933.* II. *Statistical Abstract for N. I.* Batavia, 1933. xxxv + 452 pp. 6 fl.

NEW ZEALAND

Unemployment Board. *Report.* Wellington, 1933. 18 pp. 9d.

SPAIN

Instituto nacional de Previsión. *Informe sobre el seguro de maternidad en el primer año de su funcionamiento, 1º de octubre de 1931-30 de septiembre de 1932.* Madrid, 1933. 55 pp., diagrams.

Describes the working of the new Spanish system of maternity insurance which is to take the place of the maternity assistance system temporarily responsible for the grant of maternity benefit. The report includes statistics relating to insured persons according to province, normal and abnormal births during the period reviewed, expenditure on benefits, etc. The data are summarised in the form of diagrams.

—— *Una visita a las principales clínicas del trabajo de Austria y Alemania.* By Dr. A. Oller. Madrid, 1933. 10 pp., illustr.

Describes the Accident Hospital in Vienna, the Augusta Victoria Hospital and the Emergency Hospital in Berlin, and the hospitals at mines Nos. 1 and 2 at Bochum.

SWEDEN

Socialdepartementet. *Finanspolitikens ekonomiska verkninger.* By Gunnar Myrdal. Arbetslöshetsutredningens betänkande II. Bilagor, Band 2. Stockholm, 1934. xxii + 279 pp.

This volume, which deals with the economic effects of the financial policy of the State, forms an appendix to the forthcoming second part of the Report of the Swedish Unemployment Commission on the "remedies" for unemployment. The author discusses, from a general standpoint, the needs for an expansive budgetary policy during times of depression; real incomes, he says, should be kept constant or decreased, while direct expenditure should be maintained and expanded; in boom periods the reverse policy is recommended. The main body of the work contains a discussion of the limits of expansion and contraction and the effects of such policies in different circumstances. The author also discusses various proposals which would bring the budgetary practices into conformity with these aims. Although purely theoretical in character, the work is highly stimulating and forms an important contribution to the problem of the power of the State to affect the course of the business cycle by means of its financial policy.

—— *Löneutvecklingen och Arbetslösheten.* By Alf Johansson. Statens Offentliga Utredningar 1934, 2. Arbetslöshetsutreningens Betänkande II. Bilagor, Band 3. Stockholm, 1934. vi + 162 pp., diagrams.

Analysis of the relation between wage rates and economic fluctuations, rationalisation, unemployment, purchasing power, and the formation of capital.

SWITZERLAND

Schweizerische Unfallversicherungsanstalt. *Führer durch die obligatorische Unfallversicherung zum Gebrauche der Betriebsinhaber und der Versicherten. Ausgabe vom November 1933.* VII. Auflage. Berne, 1933. v + 197 pp.

UNITED STATES

Department of Agriculture. *Food Budgets for Nutrition and Production Programmes.* By Hazel K. STIEBELING. Miscellaneous Publication No. 183. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. 15 pp.

This pamphlet summarises the data contained in a larger study published by the United States Department of Agriculture (*Diets at Four Levels of Nutritive Content and Cost*, by H. K. STIEBELING and M. M. WARD, 1933). It gives the dietary requirements of persons of different age, sex, and activity: (1) restricted diets for emergency use; (2) adequate diets at minimum cost; (3) adequate diets at moderate cost; (4) liberal diets. The quantities (weight) of the different foods required and their cost are indicated.

Department of Labour. *Twenty-First Annual Report of the Secretary of Labour for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1933.* Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. VII + 96 pp. 10 cents.

—— **Bureau of Labour Statistics.** *Co-operative Self-Help Activities among the Unemployed.* Reprinted from the March, April, and May 1933 issues of the *Monthly Labour Review*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. 163 pp.

A survey of the co-operative self-help activities which were being carried on in the spring of 1933 by the unemployed in a large number of communities in the United States. The common objective of these activities is to create a livelihood for groups of unemployed persons through the exchange of goods and services. They are not entirely uniform but have developed more or less spontaneously as local measures to meet serious emergency conditions. They include emergency exchanges, mutual exchanges, productive units, and barter and scrip plans. Their history, organisation, functions, and activities are described.

—— —— *Labour Productivity in the Automobile Tyre Industry.* By Boris STERN. Bulletin No. 585. Productivity of Labour Series. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. 74 + v pp., illustr. 10 cents.

This report contains the results of an enquiry undertaken with the object of ascertaining the actual increase of labour productivity in the automobile tyre industry, determining the chief factors responsible for the increased productivity, and estimating the effects on labour employment produced by technological advance. In the six representative tyre manufacturing plants investigated, no unemployment, technological or other, was found during the period 1922-1925. In 1926 a large displacement of labour was caused by a radical change in the method of tyre making, but the increased activity of the industry in 1927 and 1928 not only reabsorbed all the labour technologically displaced, including those who lost work in 1926, but gave employment to some additional workers. Then the slump set in. Between the boom year of 1928 and 1931, the six plants reduced their working forces by 41 per cent. of the 1928 total. Of those who lost their work, 71 per cent. were found to be unemployed on account of technological change, and only the remaining 29 per cent. were out of work because of the decreased activity of the plants.

—— —— *Report of United States Delegation at the International Labour Conference, Geneva, June 1933, to the Secretary of Labour.* From the *Monthly Labour Review* (December 1933). Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. 9 pp.

A delegation of four official observers, headed by Miss Mary Anderson, Director of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour, was appointed by President Roosevelt to attend the Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference in Geneva, 8-30 June 1933. An analysis of the Delegation's report appeared in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XLIX, No. 8, 19 February 1934, pages 242-244.

—— **Women's Bureau.** *Household Employment in Chicago.* By B. Eleanor JOHNSON. Bulletin No. 106. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. VII + 62 pp., tables. 10 cents.

After showing the general characteristics of household employment and the reasons that prevent the modernisation and standardisation of domestic service as compared with other types of work, the author describes in great detail the position of domestic servants in Chicago. She shows how the standard of living varies in the different families which employ servants, and describes the varying amount and nature of the work demanded, the wages paid, the accommodation given, and other forms of remuneration (board, etc.). She also indicates the qualifications required in the workers, and the employers' preferences in regard to race, age, etc.

—— —— *Women at Work. A Century of Industrial Change.* By Eleanor NELSON. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. III + 51 pp., illustr. 5 cents.

A review of women's progress in industry in the United States during the last hundred years. The author examines in detail the position of women workers before and since the introduction of the machine in industry, their wages, women workers during the war, labour legislation affecting women, the Negro woman worker, and the immigrant woman worker.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. State Employment Commission. *Employment Trends in Philadelphia, 1933.* By Emmett H. WELCH. 106 pp., tables, charts.

Opportunities for employment in the various industries and occupations in Philadelphia are continually changing owing to shifting industrial demand, and unemployment is therefore constantly being created among various groups of workers. This study analyses the general trends in industry, in order to facilitate the adjustment of the supply of labour to a changing demand, and so obviate this recurring cause of unemployment. Demand may change for such reasons as technological improvements, the migration of an industry to another centre, diminishing markets for certain types of goods and services, and seasonal causes, and an adjustment of the labour supply can in large measure be carried out by vocational guidance, the careful placing of new entrants into industry, the retraining of workers discharged from declining industries, advice to workers possessing skill in more than one trade, and other similar methods. The effectiveness of these measures depends, however, to a considerable extent on a knowledge of the labour market and on adequate information in regard to both the long-time and the short-time changes that are constantly taking place.

The study is in three main parts. The first deals with the broad movements in the labour demand and supply in various occupations in Philadelphia from 1900 to 1930 ; the second analyses the changes in demand for labour in various manufacturing industries in Philadelphia from 1899 to 1929 ; and the third classifies manufacturing industries in Philadelphia according to the time and extent of their seasonal fluctuations in employment.

—— —— *Thirty Thousand in Search of Work.* By Gladys L. PALMER. Harrisburg, Bureau of Publications, Department of Property and Supplies, 1933. 93 pp. 30 cents.

A study of over 30,000 applicants for work who registered at the State Employment Office in Philadelphia between 15 February and 15 October 1932.

An analysis is made by sex, age, occupation, length of service, education, and other important economic and social characteristics, the main object of the study being to find the relationship between these factors and the incidence of unemployment. Among other findings, the analysis shows that the occupational experience of the applicants was extremely varied, but that a large proportion had worked in skilled mechanical occupations. The applicants appeared to be an experienced and relatively stable group of workers : more than 300 had worked from 25 to 50 years in one job, and about half had spent more than 5 years in the longest job they reported. As regards age, they tended to be younger than the city's

regular working population, though a large number were in the age group 36-46. Women applicants were on the whole younger than men applicants and showed a better educational background.

To test the representative character of this group of unemployed workers and the effects of economic factors on its composition, comparisons are made with other surveys of the unemployed in Philadelphia and elsewhere.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Addison, Dr. Christopher, and others. *Problems of a Socialist Government.* Preface by Sir Stafford CRIPPS. London, Gollancz, 1933. 286 pp.

Contains a series of short articles setting forth Socialist views and policy in regard to various questions, including finance, the claim of the unemployed, control of industry, workers' control, local government, food supply and foreign affairs. The contributors are : Dr. ADDISON, Major ATTLEE, Sir Stafford CRIPPS, Sir Charles TREVELYAN, Messrs. H. N. BRAILSFORD, H. R. CLAY, G. D. H. COLE, J. F. HORRABIN, W. MELLOR, and E. F. WISE.

Alquier, J., and others. *L'agriculture dans l'évolution de la crise mondiale.* Conférences organisées par l'Institut national agronomique et l'Association amicale de ses anciens élèves. Avant-propos de M. H. QUEUILLE. Paris, Félix Alcan, 1933. 233 pp. 20 frs.

Texts of a series of lectures, organised by the French National Institute of Agronomy in February-March 1933, on the world agricultural depression, with a preface by the French Minister of Agriculture. The lectures deal with the agricultural depression in the United States, Germany, Central Europe, and South America, and with the effects of agricultural indebtedness in Japan, China, and India. The concluding lecture sums up the lessons to be drawn by France from the general situation.

American Medical Association. Bureau of Medical Economics. *Medical Relations under Workmen's Compensation.* Chicago, 1933. 157 pp.

After a brief review of the evolution of workmen's compensation in the United States, the report deals with the subject indicated by its title under the following heads : choice of doctor, remuneration of doctors, professional relations.

The report is written with the interests of the medical profession in view, but the criticisms which it makes of the present organisation of the medical aid provided as an element of compensation are worthy of serious attention. It ends with a series of conclusions, of which the principal are that the profession should be more closely associated with the administration of workmen's compensation, and that free choice of doctor should be substituted for the present system whereby the doctor is chosen by the employer or insurance company.

Valuable tabular information is given in the report concerning the cost of medical aid, the fee schedules applied for determining doctors' remuneration, and the medical aid provisions of the State laws.

Arato, Amélie. *L'enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles en Europe.* Publié sous les auspices de la Fédération des Femmes diplômées des universités. Brussels, Office de publicité, 1934. 312 pp.

Astor, Viscount, and Murray, Keith A. H. *The Planning of Agriculture.* Foreword by Sir Arthur SALTER. London, Oxford University Press, 1933. XVI + 186 pp.

Contains a critical and objective examination of all aspects of the agricultural situation in Great Britain and especially of the principles and consequences involved in the policies now being devised and applied for the benefit of farming. While arguing that the greatest benefit to agriculture would come from the removal of the main causes of the general depression, the authors consider that, if permanent State assistance is to be given, its chief object should be to encourage intensive production of those products for which the country possesses natural advantages, such as live stock, milk, etc., an expansion of which might well lead to the employ-

ment of half a million more workers on the land. They point out that any policy adopted should be based on the fullest recognition of the dependence of agriculture on industrial prosperity.

Batta, G., Firket, J., and Leclerc, E. *Les problèmes de pollution de l'atmosphère.* Preface by Professor E. MALVOZ. Bibliothèque scientifique belge. Liége, Georges Thone, 1933. 462 pp., illustr.

A well-documented study of atmospheric pollution. It deals in turn with: normal and polluted atmospheric conditions; effects of the different impurities on human beings; determination of the nature and degree of atmospheric pollution; remedies. The work, which is of a handy size, can be usefully consulted by all interested in public and industrial hygiene.

Best, Harry. *Blindness and the Blind in the United States.* New York, Macmillan, 1934. XXII + 714 pp. $6.50.

Second edition of a work first published under the title *The Blind, their Condition, and the Work being done for them in the United States.* Special mention may be made of the following chapters which deal with industrial medicine: blindness and accidents; industrial training and industrial establishments for the blind; work for the blind in regular factories or shops, and special workshops for the blind; compensation for loss of sight under workmen's compensation laws.

Blondot, Gérard. *Les théories monétaires de J. M. Keynes.* Thèse pour le doctorat. Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, Editions Domat-Montchrestien, 1933. 158 pp.

Brady, Robert A. *The Rationalisation Movement in German Industry. A Study in the Evolution of Economic Planning.* Berkeley, University of California Press, 1933. XXI + 466 pp. $5.

An excellent study of one of the most significant post-war industrial movements. After an examination of various aspects of the rationalisation movement, such as scientific and economic researches, standardisation, scientific management, and economic planning, the author describes the progress of rationalisation in the principal industries in Germany, including the coal, iron and steel, machine, and electrotechnical industries. An appraisal is then made of the effects of rationalisation upon general industrial stability, and the interests of capital, labour, consumers, and culture. The author reaches the conclusion that in the future the movement will lose its purely technological characteristics and more emphasis will be laid on the wider problem of planning along international lines.

Brögelmann, Wilhelm. *Wohnungsmarktprognose? Eine Untersuchung über Lage und Aussichten am Wohnungsmarkt.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde einer Hohen Rechts- und Staatswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Albert-Ludwigs-Universität zu Freiburg i. Br. Endingen, Emil Wild, 1932. 124 pp.

The author seeks to determine the relation between the demand for and supply of dwellings in Germany. The first part of his study deals with the demand. He makes a distinction between the quality and the quantity of existing dwellings and shows clearly the difficulty of an exact estimate of requirements. It is not enough that the sociologist should consider that a certain dwelling is unfit or inadequate for a given person; the latter must also wish to change his or her abode. The various estimates quoted on page 46 clearly show the differences between the views of different authors. Generally speaking a reliable basis for an estimate is furnished by the figures of the German population census, according to which there are in Germany a million families who live as subtenants. The second part, which deals with the supply of dwellings, gives a fairly complete picture of the results obtained during the period 1926-1931. It contains statistics on the movement of the cost of building and on the financing of building operations. In his conclusion, the author confines himself to pointing out that in this field it is impossible at present to forecast the future.

Charques, R. D., and Ewen, A. H. *Profits and Politics in the Post-War World. An Economic Survey of Contemporary History.* London, Victor Gollancz, 1934. 286 pp. 5s.

Comité des Forges de France. *Annuaire 1933-1934.* Paris, 1933. 357 pp.

Conolly, Violet. *Soviet Economic Policy in the East. Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan, Mongolia and Tana Tuva, Sin Kiang.* London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1933. IX + 168 pp.

In this conscientious and objective study, which is based on data obtained from numerous official sources, Miss Conolly gives an interesting account of the trade relations of the U.S.S.R. with some Eastern countries and of the Soviet economic policy in regard to them.

Copland, D. B., and Weller, G. A. *The Australian Economy.* Simple Economic Studies. Third revised edition. Sydney, Angus and Robertson, 1933. XI + 171 pp. 4s. 6d.

The first edition of this book, which appeared in 1931, consisted of a reprint of a series of newspaper articles written by Professor Copland for the purpose of providing the public " with the main facts and the elementary arguments for an understanding of the causes of the depression ". In the present (third) edition some revisions have been made and new chapters have been added. At the end of each chapter relevant tables and book references have been inserted.

Besides the brief account given of the general structure of the Australian economy and the effect produced on it by the depression, the book is a useful guide to the understanding of the plan which was adopted in Australia (on the recommendations of a committee of experts presided over by Professor Copland) for meeting the depression and of which the main elements are described as " governmental economies, wage reductions, interest reductions, currency depreciation, credit expansion ".

Coppin, Guido. *L'Istituto nazionale per l'Assistenza ai Grandi Invalidi del Lavoro nel Decennale della Rivoluzione Fascista, Milano — Anno 1933-XI.* Milan, S. A. Arte Grafica Ambrosiana, 1933. 356 pp., illustr.

In this report on the activities of the Italian National Institute for assistance to the persons seriously disabled by industrial accidents during the first decade of the Fascist regime, Mr. Coppin first examines and compares the ways in which assistance to the seriously disabled is carried out in the principal countries where special measures have been adopted to deal with the problem. He then examines the results of the work of rehabilitation of the disabled carried out by the Italian National Institute and makes numerous observations on the physical and occupational rehabilitation of workers disabled by industrial accidents. Two chapters are given to the study of placing and general assistance for disabled workers in general. The volume includes the texts of the relevant legislation.

Danaïllow, Georges T. *Les effets de la guerre en Bulgarie.* Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale (Série bulgare). Publications de la Dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Section d'économie et d'histoire. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, Yale University Press. XII + 752 pp. 105 frs.

Dean, Vera M. *Soviet Russia, 1917-1933.* World Affairs Pamphlets No. 2. New York, Foreign Policy Association ; Boston, World Peace Foundation, 1933. 40 pp. 25 cents.

A short but accurate survey of the political and economic structure of Soviet Russia, followed by a brief account of the evolution of Russian foreign policy.

Drogat, N. *Manuel social rural.* Paris, Editions Spes, 1933. 235 pp. 10 frs.

A simple handbook of rural social conditions for the guidance of agriculturists, with special reference to the position of agricultural production in France. It includes chapters on the various systems of land tenure, the conditions of the agri-

cultural wage earner, various agricultural organisations, and the rôle played by the State, and a brief account of certain forms of socialisation in agriculture. A bibliography is appended.

Einzig, Paul. *The Economic Foundations of Fascism.* London, Macmillan, 1933. xii + 156 pp. 3s.

The author is convinced that the present world economic depression can only be remedied and its recurrence prevented by scientific planning on an international scale, and that it is within the framework of the Corporative State that "efficient scientific planning on a capitalistic basis can be conciliated in the most favourable conditions with individual initiative". This conclusion was reached after a visit to Italy towards the end of 1932, and led him to attempt in this book an objective examination of the economic aspects of the Italian Fascist experiment which, he says, have received too little attention outside that country. Production, public works as an economic factor, distribution, monetary policy, and banking are reviewed in turn. There is a chapter on the international relations of the Fascist State and another in which the socialistic tendencies of Fascism are considered. In conclusion the author pleads for a dispassionate examination of the constructive elements in the corporative system, which, he suggests, could be adapted to meet the requirements of some other countries.

Federazione Enti Mutui Assicurazione Infortuni Agricole. *Ai nostri contadini. Per la prevenzione degli infortuni agricoli.* Rome, 1934. 238 pp.

Förster, Walter. *Die Auswertung der deutschen Umsatzsteuerstatistik für ökonomische Zwecke.* Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde bei der Philosophischen Fakultät der Hessischen Ludwigs-Universität zu Giessen. Giessen, 1933. 55 pp.

Gyllenram, René. *Upplysningstjänst i Emigrationsfragor.* Anteckningar från en studieresa. Stockholm, P. A. Norstedt, 1933. 40 pp.

Contains the results of an enquiry into the working of organisations and institutions dealing with emigration questions in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.

Heinemann, Dr. Gustav W. *Kassenarztrecht auf Grund der gesetzlichen Bestimmungen, der Richtlinien des Reichsausschusses für Ärzte und Krankenkassen und der Rechtsprechung.* Dritte, veränderte Auflage. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1933. viii + 335 pp.

Collection of laws, decrees, administrative regulations, contracts, rules and directions concerning the German sickness insurance medical service down to 1933, with commentaries by the author and other authorities on the subject. The preface contains a short history of the question.

Huguet, H., and Morgaut, Marc E. *Chambres de métiers ? Contribution aux controverses sur la loi du 26 juillet 1925 et ses modifications projetées.* Orléans, Chambre de métiers du Loiret, 1933. 22 pp.

Inman, Samuel Guy. *América revolutionaria.* Conferencias y ensayos. Foreword by Arturo Capdevila. Madrid, Javier Morata, 1933. 340 pp. 7.50 pesetas.

Mr. Inman, who is a professor in Columbia University, gives in this study a general picture of the economic, political, and social situation of most of the Latin American countries and an account of the revolutions which have taken place in some of them in recent years.

Iowa State College. Agricultural Experiment Station. *The Agricultural Emergency in Iowa.* Reprint Series No. J. 123. Ames, Iowa, Collegiate Press, 1933. x + 201 pp.

A reprint of a series of ten special studies written by members of the agricultural economics research staff of Iowa State College, dealing with the agricultural situation in Iowa in 1932-1933. They deal with the position of agriculture in December 1932, with the causes of the emergency, the tax situation, mortgages, the domestic

allotment plan, price control, monetary inflation and tariffs in their relation to the agriculture of the State.

Jaarverslag van de stichting "Het Veiligheidsmuseum" 1932. Amsterdam, de Bussy. 55 pp., illustr.

This report of the Amsterdam Industrial Safety Museum for 1932 was analysed in *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. X, No. 1, January-February 1934, pages 12-13.

Jahrbuch des Jugendrechts. Bd. V für das Jahr 1932. In Verbindung mit Dr. Karl HAGEMANN, Dr. Leopold PERELS, Dr. Arthur WEGNER. Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich WEBLER. Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1933. VIII + 147 pp.

Japy, Pierre. *La relation de cause à effet dans les accidents du travail.* Thèse pour le doctorat. Université de Paris, Faculté de droit. Paris, Editions internationales, 1933. 158 pp.

In this thesis the author attempts to justify the substitution of the theory of the worker's subordination to the employer for the theory of the occupational risk incurred, which is generally admitted as the basis of compensation for industrial accidents. While the theory of occupational risk makes the obligation to pay compensation dependent on the existence of a relation of cause and effect between the accident and the work, so that, for instance, an accident on the working premises or during work, but not directly connected with the carrying out of the employer's orders, entitles the worker to compensation provided it is not due to his own grave fault, Mr. Japy's theory would on the contrary make the payment of compensation conditional on whether the accident is due to the execution of explicit or implicit orders given by the employer, or, in other words, to the worker's position of subordination to the employer.

L'alimentation indigène dans les colonies françaises, protectorats et territoires sous mandat. Publié par un groupe de professeurs, médecins, administrateurs coloniaux, sous la direction de G. HARDY et Ch. RICHET fils. Secrétaire de la rédaction : Joseph VASSAL. Préface de LASNET. Paris, Vigot, 1933. 388 pp., illustr. 40 frs.

In this collection of articles on the problem of the food supply in the French Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories, each of which is written by an authority on the subject treated, the first part deals with the following questions : the food supply and diets (calories, vitamins, etc.) ; rational diets in the colonies ; the food of the Native ; diseases due to improper or inadequate food ; the problem of the water supply ; the nutritive value of colonial food products ; the food of the European in the colonies. The second part contains a study of food resources in the different French oversea possessions and their utilisation by the Natives. The work gives data that are extremely interesting both from the standpoint of the health of the Native — especially of the Native worker — and from that of public health in general.

Littmann, Werner. *Reformen der Lohnstatistik in Deutschland.* Von der Technischen Hochschule München zur Erlangung der Würde eines Doktors der technischen Wissenschaften genehmigte Abhandlung. 150 pp. (typescript).

Lombroso, Gina. *Le retour à la prospérité. Les erreurs du passé et les tâches de l'avenir.* Translated from the Italian by Henri WINCKLER. Paris, Payot, 1933. 280 pp. 15 frs.

Modern Industry and the African. An Enquiry into the Effect of the Copper Mines of Central Africa upon Native Society and the Work of Christian Missions made under the auspices of the Department of Social and Industrial Research of the International Missionary Council. Edited by J. Merle DAVIS. London, MacMillan, 1933.

For an analysis of the chapters of this report dealing with sociological and economic problems, see above : "Minerals and Civilisation in Africa", under the heading "Reports and Enquiries".

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